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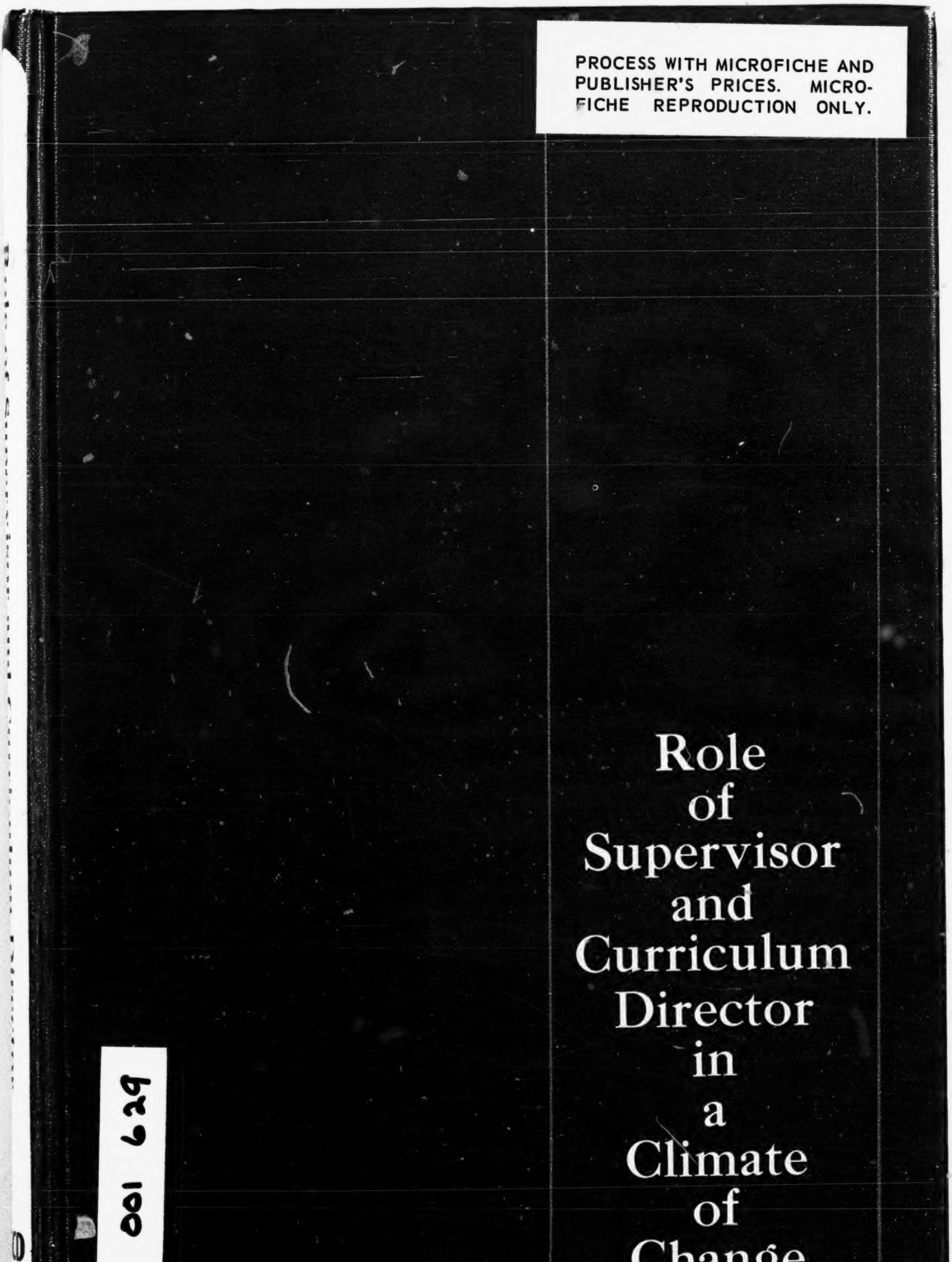
Chapter 1 of this yearbook describes the current educational milieu, discusses recent educational changes and implications for educational change, and notes both problems which have hindered progress and possible solutions. Chapter 2 indicates that more than scholarship in a subject is needed in teaching, and suggests possible classroom organizational patterns which place the focus of education on the individual. Chapter 3 describes the emerging functions of the supervisor and curriculum leader, and suggests staff organizational patterns for curriculum implementation and development and for improvement of teaching. Chapter 4 suggests that these new functions require new competencies, more thorough preparation, and clearer standards of professionalism. Chapter 5 describes promising new curriculum practices on the elementary and secondary levels. Chapter 6 describes conceptual tools needed by the professional supervisor and curriculum specialist in the future, and points the way for development of such tools. (TT)



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Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director in a Climate of Change

Prepared by
The ASCD 1965 Yearbook
Committee

Evelyn F. Carlson, *Chairman*

Edited by Robert R. Leeper

Association for
Supervision and Curriculum
Development

1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
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Foreword

Harold D. Drummond

SUPERVISION and curriculum development have always been central concerns of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. From the early days to the present, most ASCD members have held positions which require supervisory and curricular leadership. Quite naturally, then, ASCD has from time to time asked committees to develop yearbooks on the roles of supervisors and curriculum directors.

In periods of little change, supervisors and curriculum directors have roles to perform which can be rather effectively designed and defined. The tasks are not simple even then, of course, for creating conditions which result in desirable human changes is always a complicated process. When old "truths" are challenged, when "proven" methods are questioned, and when traditional content is rapidly replaced by "new" programs, role expectations for supervisors and curriculum directors become vastly more complex and more significant.

Obviously, we are now experiencing a period of exceedingly rapid change in education. We face a decade, moreover, in which the pace of change undoubtedly will increase, unless man should extinguish human life from this planet through senseless atomic warfare. Professional associations, if they are to survive the next decade, will need to be alert to the new demands; and they will have to help light some of the passageways now dimly seen between the good programs of the past and present and the desirable curriculums of the future.

Will ASCD be such a forward-looking Association, or will it, like the proverbial Gooney bird, fly backwards from reality into a Seuss-like fantasyland? The Committee which has prepared this yearbook has been willing to look hard at current realities and to propose some forward steps. Not every ASCD member will agree with the rationale or the conclusions which the Committee has developed. That will not be surprising, since ASCD members rarely ever are in unanimity on any issue.

Choices have been clearly delineated by the authors. Van Til, for instance, in his chapter, which provides the setting from which the other chapters flow, writes:

> . . . the choice before professional educators is not a new one. The same choice has been offered them throughout many eras. Educators may *accept* the tendencies of the times in which they find themselves and develop school programs which *reflect* all prevalent social forces. Or educators may *appraise* the tendencies of the times and develop school programs through which the learners can *reflect upon* and help shape social forces.

He proposes a more extensive and continuing dialogue "among those who work in the separate subject fields and those who work in professional education." He states the case for such a dialogue succinctly as follows:

> Both groups have immediate interests in disseminating the selected best developed through current projects. Some day both groups must face together designs for the curriculum as a whole. We cannot eternally improve and distribute the separate parts of our educational vehicle. Not if we want to go places in the best possible models.

Sand draws upon his experiences with the NEA Project on Instruction, and concludes:

> Only by a continuing quest for knowledge and an awareness of all the shifts and changes that occur in the determining conditions of education can its leaders hope to be responsive to the needs of the individual and of society. Rules-of-thumb and opinions, which too often guide decision making, must be replaced by basic concepts with which to think about the problem.

And Babcock indicates that:

> . . . decision making, if it is to be constructive, must be accomplished on the basis of sound criteria, objectively applied. At present these important curricular decisions are being made in a variety of ways, by various people, and at different levels in the educational structure.

He concludes with these words:

> . . . in spite of the complexity of the problem, it is essential that the channels for curriculum change be cleared and the supervisor's role be clarified. In this we have no choice, subject as the schools are to an increasing variety of curriculum pressures and to an ever-growing diffusion of the curriculum decision-making function. We must examine critically the roles and functions, not only of the curriculum staff, but of the total administrative structure and the problems of interrelationships among the various parts.

In their chapter on "Securing Competent Instructional Leaders," Shafer and Mackenzie indicate that:

> . . . instructional leaders with varying areas of specialization who together constitute a team are required for today's educational program and for the needs of today's teachers with regard to that program. Guidelines for the preparation and continued growth of instructional leaders based upon an analysis of present and projected required competencies are urgently needed.

These authors then go on to state quite specifically a continuing role for an association such as ASCD, using the following words:

> Appropriate professional organizations as well as preparing institutions not only have responsibilities for developing guidelines for pre- and in-service programs. They also have responsibilities which extend beyond these to include the areas of recruitment and selection of candidates and those of accreditation and certification.

Klohr's analysis in the final chapter of the Yearbook suggests that if curriculum directors and supervisors are to function adequately and effectively within a climate of change they will need to back away from the incessant demands of their jobs and deliberately develop: (a) "a clear picture of specialized professional functions," (b) "more adequate conceptual tools to carry out unique professional functions," and (c) "openness to new experience." Certainly, ASCD can help in meeting such needs if, individually and collectively, its members desire such efforts from the Association.

Will ASCD in the years ahead, cooperating with other professional associations and with institutions preparing supervisors and curriculum directors, face realistically and hardheadedly some of the tough problems enumerated by these authors: recruitment, selection, accreditation, certification? Can ASCD, through cooperative action of its affiliated units, its Executive Committee, its Board of Directors, and its individual members clarify its own role, clear its own channels, and move ahead forthrightly in the task of developing more competent instructional leaders? Our efforts in such ventures will determine, in large part, whether the Association *should* live and function.

Some steps, of course, have already been taken toward these ends. Theory commissions are already at work attempting to help in the development of more adequate conceptual tools in supervision, curriculum, and instruction. The Commission on the Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers is struggling with the "clear picture of specialized professional functions," and *Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming,* the ASCD 1962 Yearbook, certainly started many of us on the road toward greater openness.

The 1965 Yearbook speaks forthrightly to ASCD members and to the Association itself. Heffernan and Bishop have helped us see what thoughtful supervisors and curriculum directors across the land are now doing. We have also been helped in looking beyond the present to better programs of preparation and to better performance on our jobs. We are, therefore, indebted to all the authors and to other members of the Committee who have given so willingly of their time that the rest of us might undertake, as Klohr expresses it, "a deliberate backing off" so that "the look ahead will have sufficient perspective to give a sense of direction."

On behalf of the Executive Committee, may I express, especially, our deep appreciation to Evelyn Carlson who stepped forward, when illness forced a previously selected chairman to resign, and willingly took over the difficult task of seeing that this Yearbook actually did get written. As an Associate Superintendent in one of the largest school systems in this land, she surely is one of America's busiest educators. Nevertheless, the work got done. I am certain that thousands of supervisors and curriculum directors in ASCD will feel that it is a job well done.

Acknowledgments

COMPLETE acknowledgment to all those who contributed time, effort and special talents to the writing and production of this book is almost impossible. Nevertheless, the Association is grateful to all those who have helped the writers with reading of the manuscript, research assistance and moral support. Particular thanks are extended to C. Glen Hass, of the University of Florida, who served as official reader for this manscript.

Robert R. Leeper, Editor and Associate Secretary, ASCD, cooperated with the yearbook committee and writers, edited the final manuscript, and guided production of the volume. Margaret Gill, Executive Secretary, ASCD, contributed much through reading the manuscript and giving valuable professional advice. Technical production of the book was handled by Marjorie West, Editorial Aide, ASCD, under the general direction of Ruth P. Ely, Editorial Associate, ASCD.

Introduction

Evelyn F. Carlson

THE "Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director" was the theme assigned by the Executive Committee for the ASCD 1965 Yearbook. The members of the Yearbook Committee discussed and debated the subject at great length.

Why should there be a yearbook on this subject at this time? What conditions, if any, would make for differences in this professional volume as contrasted with those about essentially the same subject in relatively recent years?

Although the members of the Yearbook Committee had problems of semantics until common meanings had been established for basic terminology, there was immediate and general agreement as to a number of reasons for the suggested topic of the ASCD 1965 Yearbook. High among these reasons were the effects of drastic changes in the social setting upon the curriculum, the recent curriculum development work of the academicians and the impact of these on the work of the supervisor and the curriculum director. Finally, the Committee agreed that, although the general area had been treated in ASCD yearbooks in 1946, 1951 and 1960, the social setting and the educational climate in which the 1965 Yearbook would be prepared were definitely different from those in which the other yearbooks had been written. The subtitle of this volume, "In a Climate of Change," reflects these differences.

As possible outlines for the Yearbook were explored, the Committee was confronted with the problem of communication to which reference is made above. When the terms "supervisor" and "curriculum director" were used, the functions of the persons to whom the members of the Committee were referring were as varied as the backgrounds represented by the Committee members themselves. And these, indeed, were varied. Among others, the membership of the Committee included a supervisor in a county school district, another whose territory was an entire state, an assistant superintendent in a suburban school district, a curriculum director in a small town and an associate superintendent in a large city. Neither title nor number of persons supervised nor extent of territory within the purview of a person could be used with any degree of assurance in identifying the work of a member.

A school district may be very small, have only one person working in the general area of supervision and curriculum, and that one person may be called a supervisor; or a school district may be only slightly larger and the supervisor may be called the curriculum director with his functions basically the same as those of the supervisor in the first district. Similarly, a person performing the same functions in a suburban area as do the first two persons described may be called assistant superintendent.

Conversely, another group of three curriculum workers may be known by identical titles, but upon examination of their functions, they may be found to perform entirely different tasks. There are supervisors who are generalists and supervisors of specific subjects; there are supervisors of services and supervisors of instructional media. However, all are usually known simply as supervisors or as consultants. There are curriculum directors whose basic jobs, like those of supervisors, are providing for in-service education of teachers; while there are other curriculum directors who provide leadership in the development of curriculum materials, but whose titles generally do not denote any differences in function.

Consequently, the Committee decided that for the purposes of this Yearbook, since the titles "supervisor" and "curriculum director" often are used interchangeably as to function, the terms might be used in the broadest sense to indicate persons who, either through working with teachers at the classroom level or through working with supervisors, principals or others at a central office level, contribute to the improvement of teaching and/or the implementation and development of curriculum. No attempt was to be made in the Yearbook to indicate all of the titles which might be used in a given situation, but they range from supervisor to deputy superintendent of curriculum and research.

As the Yearbook developed, the use of terminology as agreed upon by the Committee was maintained with one exception: additional terms of curriculum workers—curriculum specialists, consultants, curriculum leaders and instructional leaders—all have been used in the same sense as supervisor and curriculum director.

In the course of its work, the Yearbook Committee discussed thoughfully the possibility of drawing up a formula for staffing for supervisory services. The Committee decided that pertinent variables among school districts were so many that staffing components, as well as proportionate numbers to be allocated to various components, necessarily would vary considerably from one school district to another.

Variables explored which were considered of importance to staffing were many. The size of school district, for example, was considered extremely relevant to supervisory staffing. Financially, a small school district may be able to employ only one supervisor; almost certainly, that one would need to be a generalist. In a larger district, however, there may be one or more generalists, one or more subject specialists, some who provide instructional media assistance, and others, special services. Further, two districts may be equally large and yet, for a number of reasons, each may need to use a very different supervisory staffing formula. In one case, the top staffing priority in the school district may need to be given to reducing class size; limited financial resources may preclude providing for both class size staffing needs and supervisory staffing needs. In the second district, a specific need, for example, supervisory assistance for teachers in culturally disadvantaged areas, may be of such importance that a saturation of supervisory services for the specific need should be given precedence over a balanced supervisory staffing for all schools in the district.

Other variables affect supervisory staffing—the number of new teachers on a staff, the proportion the new teachers represent of the total teaching group, the current emphasis in the curriculum of the school district. These examples of variables are but a few of many. They serve, however, to indicate the complexity of the task of developing a comprehensive supervisory staffing formula, and they emphasize the fact that any such formula would need to be modified by a school district to fit its specific requirements.

Finally, these variables indicate why only a ratio of supervisors to teachers is cited in this Yearbook—without any breakdown as to kind or proportionate relationships—and, further, why the ratio is quoted from a study merely as an illustration of a formula appearing in current educational literature and not as a recommendation of the Yearbook Committee.

Several outlines for the Yearbook were developed as part of the work of the Committee; eventually one was selected. The chapters in this volume follow the flow of the Committee's thinking with reference to the role of the supervisor and curriculum director and indicate the position of the Committee with regard to related major areas of concern.

Leadership in a Changing Scene

Thus William Van Til's chapter suggests the milieu within which education, today, is taking place; indicates educational changes which have come about as well as implications for educational change; and notes both problems which have hindered progress and possible directions toward their solution.

With the stage for change set by Van Til, the bases for decisions are examined by Ole Sand. Chapter Two draws heavily upon the experience of the NEA Project on Instruction, as it should because of the considered nature of that study and because of its pertinence to the problems faced in this Yearbook. However, Sand, in his conclusions, also draws upon his own studies, experience and thinking. This chapter indicates that more than scholarship in a subject is needed in determining what subjects and when, how and to whom a subject should be taught. The chapter also indicates possible classroom organizational patterns which may help in placing the focus in education upon the individual.

The emerging roles and functions of the supervisor and/or curriculum leader are described in Chapter Three. With the points made in Chapters One and Two in mind, Chester Babcock attempts to delineate the emerging role of the supervisor and curriculum director. These roles and functions grow out of educational changes made in response to social setting changes on the bases of sound criteria, including basic concepts and principles. Among other factors, the urgency of improved teacher education is described, and possibilities of staff organizational patterns are suggested for curriculum implementation and development and for the improvement of teaching.

These new functions and organizational relationships require new competencies, more thorough preparation and clearer standards of professionalization as indicated by Harold Shafer and Gordon Mackenzie in Chapter Four.

Helen Heffernan, for the elementary school level, and Leslee Bishop, for the high school level, in Chapter Five, attempt, through brief descriptions of actual promising practices, to show the important, indeed crucial, role of process in curriculum change.

Finally, Paul Klohr in Chapter Six takes a step into the future, as he describes conceptual tools needed by the professional supervisor and curriculum specialist, and points the way for the development of such tools.

Sincere appreciation is expressed to all Committee members; each contributed to the planning and the developing of this Yearbook; many contributed to the case studies in Chapter Five. Special commendation is due Helen James and Louis Rubin as members of the committee and for their work with the several drafts of the manuscript. Members of the ASCD Executive Committee read the manuscript and offered excellent comments; special appreciation is due C. Glen Hass, who served as continuing reader representing the Executive Committee.

The gratitude of every member of the Yearbook Committee is extended to the authors of the various chapters. Several of them not only wrote their chapters but worked with the Committee throughout the development period and thus contributed significantly to the quality of the total book.

Finally, the personal appreciation of the chairman is extended to Margaret Gill, ASCD Executive Secretary, for her advice and assistance, and to Robert R. Leeper, Associate Secretary and Editor, ASCD Publications, who edited this volume and directed its production.

The ASCD 1965 Yearbook represents the position not only of the authors but also of the members of the Committee who read and discussed the full text of first drafts of chapters at the ASCD Conference in Miami Beach and who read and commented on all subsequent drafts by mail.

The positions taken in this Yearbook may not represent those of all members of ASCD, or even the positions of most. Yet it was and is the conviction of the Committee that the time is long past due for a forthright statement of belief. Such a statement, hopefully, may serve as an initiator of dialogue between the academicians and curriculum specialists, and may lend impetus, even a sense of urgency, to groups at work on professionalization standards. Such a statement may also cause all supervisors and curriculum specialists to look to the bases upon which they make decisions, to the processes they utilize in curriculum change, and to their development and use of conceptual tools to lift the entire level of their operations.

To these ends, the Yearbook Committee and authors have labored. That these are ambitious goals is recognized, but the Committee would recall Browning's words:

> Ah, but a man's reach should exceed his grasp,
> Or what's a heaven for?

Chapter One

In a Climate of Change

William Van Til

IN OUR time, any consideration of the social setting of change must include a new dimension. Man has embarked on a quest fraught with both danger and promise for individuals and societies. Even man's great Age of Discovery, symbolized for every American school child by the perilous voyage of Christopher Columbus, pales in comparison with the scope of the current quest. The immensity of the corollary changes is staggering, although such changes can be glimpsed only dimly in 1965. Through both new knowledge and demands, these changes must affect a host of man's endeavors, whether scientific, religious, international or educational. For restless, insatiable, inquiring man has invaded space.

In a Social Setting of Change

Demands of Space Technology

Though as yet man is only on the fringes of space, data changing our knowledge already accumulate, such as information from the space shots to photograph the moon and from weather satellites. Space technology changes our social relationships, such as the instantaneous visual global communication of Telstar.

Yet currently we are only on the threshold. So man's present emphasis is on breaking through, on launching out and staying out, rather than on gathering the coming crop of knowledge and reaping the incalculable harvest of change. Consequently, the emphasis as to space is on technology, the application of scientific knowledge to practical concerns.

The social demand of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and allied agencies is for trained, knowledgeable, highly specialized manpower ranging from the most rarefied of mathematicians to the earthiest of grease monkeys. Of this specialized personnel perfection must be required. In space technology, the passing grade is not 65 percent. Nor is it 99 percent or even the soap advertisement's boast of 99.44 percent purity. The only passing grade is 100 percent. This standard applies not only to the esoteric calculations of the key men. It applies to nuts and bolts, as fascinated viewing audiences have learned while glued to TV sets during delays of countdowns. It applies to camera mechanisms, as we learned when one early space vehicle arrived precisely on schedule at the moon—but the cameras responded as blankly as an unloaded Brownie at the family picnic.

The demand by space technology for new knowledge, high specialization, and perfection combines with other social trends to put pressure on the schools for dissemination of new knowledge, early specialization and excellence. The schools respond by revising science and mathematics subject matter throughout the program, by shifting some materials to earlier levels, and by increasing science and mathematics specialization in the schools. The schools also respond by attempting to raise standards of accomplishment despite the persisting handicap of financial pressures and the prevalence of cultural deprivation among many students. Meanwhile, demand for general education in social policies and international relationships with respect to space ventures is minimal. In the manner of Mr. Micawber, society seems to wait for something to turn up in the social realm.

Changes in the International Setting

Polarization of Power. On the planet Earth, significant shifts take place in the international setting. Following World War II, power polarized about two nations, the USA and the USSR. The world grew familiar with cold war, the nuclear buildup to the overkill level, satellite nations and treaty organizations, and with the grim balance of terror. The world from World War II onward became an arena of cold conflict between two giant power blocs and their allies, while some neutral nations sought to develop independently of the two emerging superpowers. Violence erupted on occasion, notably in Korea; it was far from a serene world. Yet the lines were clearly drawn, a citizen of either power bloc knew who was friend or foe or neutral. Anxiety, already risen high through the McCarthy era, crested in the United States when, in 1957, the Soviet Union put the first Sputnik into orbit and the United States faced the prospect of being the second-rate of the two powers. Society pressed the schools for earlier specialization; more science, mathematics and modern languages; separate subjects rather than integrated general education; and for knowing the ways of our avowed international enemy, the Soviet Union.

Pluralism in Power. Yet a thaw in the Cold War developed and so did difficulties in the spheres of influence in the two major powers. We must let the historians select the turning point date and describe the relationship, if any, of the two trends. Clearly, by the mid-sixties, pluralism in power characterized an increasingly untidy world.

For instance, the Communists of the Soviet Union were at odds with the Communists of China and, of all unlikely nations to play a role on the world scene, of Albania. Speculation was rife on the degree to which Khrushchev's ouster in October 1964 reflected Russian uneasiness with the breach with Red China. Even after Khrushchev's removal from power, coolness characterized the November 1964 talks among Chou En-lai, Premier of Communist China, and the new team in the Kremlin under the leadership of Brezhnev. The satellites in Eastern Europe showed varying degrees of relative independence of formerly complete mastery by the Soviet Union. New regional power centers, such as the Arab World, emerged. Scholars of foreign affairs debated whether Castro was China-oriented, Russia-oriented, or simply Castro-oriented.

For instance, by the mid-sixties the United States was troubled by the foreign policy France chose to pursue. Western Europe as a whole pushed for a stronger and more independent voice in world affairs. Underdeveloped nations, which had been recipients of American AID programs, sometimes followed dictatorial leaders, socialist economic patterns and narrowly nationalist policies. Many Americans found the chosen courses hard to understand and impossible to approve. Anti-American riots took place in nations with economic ties to the United States of America, such as Panama, Greece, and Venezuela.

Meanwhile the post-World War II enemies, the USA and the USSR, tried to widen the narrow areas of understanding between them through agreements on testing and trade, through hot lines and cultural exchanges. Khrushchev's successors told President Johnson there would be no "basic" change in Soviet policy toward the West.

In the period of growing pluralism of power, the threat of total war seemed to many observers to be diminishing, despite the persistence, for example, of small hot wars in Southeast Asia. At least, people in the major developed nations had learned to live as though there would be no nuclear holocaust. But the uneasy peace of the untidy world was haunted by the ghosts of accidental triggering of violence by mechanical failure or fanatical men, as popularly reflected in such novels and films as *Fail Safe, Dr. Strangelove* and *Seven Days in May*. The world was haunted by a realization that secrets related to nuclear power are hard to keep in a pluralistic world and that irresponsibility in leadership, whether of mature or immature nations, always remains a possibility. The world was haunted by the revolutionary potential in a stubbornly increasing economic gap between the developed and the underdeveloped nations which coincided with a population explosion characterized by higher birthrates in underdeveloped nations than in developed lands. There is social dynamite lying about on any international scene in which the rich get richer while the poor get children.

Acceleration of Trends

The shift from an international setting of conflict between two powers to a setting in which a Babel of tongues compete for a hearing complicates the task of international education through the schools. Much more sophisticated analysis of international affairs and much greater empathy are called for in the pluralistic setting than in a setting sketched in black and white, their side against ours. Depth study is required of such problems as population, economic systems, cultural differences, diplomacy, shifting alignments, alternative strategies, arms control, versions of nationalism, potentialities in foreign aid and conflict among powers. Such problems are a far cry from either a hard-boiled approach of knowing your enemy or a soft-boiled approach of the oneness and likeness of all men. So, in a climate of change, international education became a more complex and demanding undertaking. Paradoxically, support was more readily found for reconstruction of any discipline than for the development of interdisciplinary studies of international problems.

Development of Science and Technology. While space provided a new dimension of change and the international scene became marked by the complexities of pluralism, the American nation experienced a marked acceleration of already existing trends. Particularly impressive was the speeding up of already rapid development in science and technology.

Of all of the trends that have accompanied the evolution of the United States, the development of science and technology may well be the most remorseless. There has never been a plateau, much less a movement backward, in the rising curve in technical advance as water power, steam, electricity and nuclear power successively developed. In the late 18th century there were intimations of automation in Eli Whitney's cotton gin which were made more explicit by his muskets with standardized interchangeable parts. In the 20th century, the handwriting on the wall spelled automation from the moment Henry Ford set up his first assembly line. The only question was "when?"

Today automation is a reality in many industries and services. A social commentator in search of symbols representing man's technical development today might well utilize two backdrops. One would portray a blue-collar environment, an expanse of factory through which a product untouched by human hands steadily and accumulatively voyages under the watchful eyes of a handful of men present only in case the machinery fails. The other would portray a white-collar environment in which a quiet man sits at a bare desk in a sterile room banked by computers with twitching wheels and mechanical digestive gulps.

The remorseless trend of accelerating development in science and technology in the United States supports identical trends stemming from the world quest into space. In the schools the results are also identical, as demands are made for dissemination of new knowledge, especially in science and mathematics, throughout the program; as pressures are exerted for earlier specialization; and as calls are heard for higher standards. As to responding to the social problem of automation which accompanies the technological trend, the schools, like society, often seem baffled as to what to do.

Urbanization. In modern society the twin trend that accompanies technological development is urbanization. Today a great urban complex sprawls from Maine to Virginia and other complexes cluster in the Midwest and on the Pacific Coast. The countryside is laced by thickening ribbons of road. The complex has two major constituents, the cities and the suburbs. Today seven out of ten Americans live in cities; between 1950 and 1960 the suburbs grew four-and-a-half times faster than the central cities. The centers of cities are Mecca for the newly arrived, currently from the rural areas of the South and Puerto Rico; the suburbs are Medina for the socially-arrived, currently the rising middle classes. Despite occasional heroic efforts at urban renewal, the core of the great cities frequently decays as the upward mobile flee to the suburbs. The result is summarized in the well-chosen Conant title, *Slums and Suburbs.*[1]

The educational influence of urbanization on the schools could have been predicted well in advance by anyone familiar with our system of financing education. In an educational system which stresses local support of schools and is enhanced by state aid but is not characterized by comprehensive federal aid to education, localities with sufficient income have been able to support schooling adequately while localities with insufficient revenue for the task have supported schools inadequately.

In general this has meant that, despite occasional middle-class taxpayer revolts, suburban schools have been better situations for the education of children and youth than have slum schools. Even where there has been heavy investment in new buildings and new programs for slum schools, the immensity of the task of overcoming cultural deprivation in a socially unhealthy environment has often overwhelmed some gallant efforts by cities.

Civil Rights. While the long-established trends of technology and urbanization persisted and while the effects of cultural deprivation became increasingly recognized, an invigorated drive for equal civil rights for minorities, especially American Negroes, moved into high gear, complicating still further patterns of human relationships. Concern for the equal rights of Negroes has a long history in America. The status of Negroes troubled the makers of the United States Constitution; freedom from slavery was the crusade of nineteenth century abolitionists. The quest for equality has been reflected in the credos of white reformers and in the platforms of political parties during recent decades of the 20th century.

Yet the new elements that mark the civil rights drive in the 1960's are the vigorous demands, demonstrations and participation stemming directly from the common man and woman among the Negro population, both North and South. No longer does the American Negro depend solely on the formal leadership organizations in race relations and on white liberalism to press his case. Now protest wells from local neighborhoods and local churches led by influential local Negroes hitherto unknown to the national mass media. Segregationists hold stubbornly to their traditional and invalidated assumptions. Clashes become inescapable.

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[1] James B. Conant. *Slums and Suburbs.* New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Inc., 1961. 147 p.

The current Negro revolution of the 1960's began when ordinary Negro people decided to struggle for their rights here and now. Two college boys from a Negro college in North Carolina "sat in" at a lunch counter in a chain store. A woman sat down in the white section of a Montgomery, Alabama, bus. A young Negro minister, named for a leader of the Protestant Reformation, came to the conclusion that the time is now, that the waiting is over. The sparks were struck at a time of stubbornly persisting segregation, of occasional defiance and of only grudging acquiescence to the Supreme Court decision of 1954 by many individuals and groups. It was a time of rising resentment by Negroes who recognized that many of their number did not enjoy the rights of citizens and that still more were culturally deprived. The sparks ignited the tinder. A chain reaction was triggered throughout the country. The sheer number of bodies both of Negroes and of their white sympathizers clustered at counters, in corridors, in front of trucks and cars, at marches and demonstrations (or bodies strategically withdrawn from buses, stores and schools) brought moral and political issues to the forefront of the American consciousness. To Americans, civil rights became the number one problem. The Civil Rights Law of 1964, supported by the legislative leaders of both major parties in Congress, was the unprecedented political result. The arguments about relationships between human rights and property rights go on. Violent excesses occur such as the rioting in Harlem, Brooklyn and Rochester during the long hot summer of 1964.

Currently the schools are a major battleground in the conflict between Negro determination and the backlash of resentment among some whites. Desegregation strategies of educators often clash with maintenance of customary educational concepts, such as the neighborhood school. Again, schoolmen and boards of education have inherited a bitter social conflict. Fought both in the streets and in the courts, the civil rights conflict spills over inevitably into the nation's schoolrooms. Intercultural education, too often neglected, becomes imperative.

Economics and Leisure. As technology and urbanization and the civil rights struggle have accelerated, the trend of expanding economic provision of goods and services has continued. The American nation has a powerful base on which the expanding economy is built. The base includes favorable geographical location, varied and rich actual and potential resources, and a dynamically innovating technology. So powerful is the economic base that it has tended to compensate for a working force usually utilized at a level substantially below full employment, for featherbedding and stretching the work on the part of some unions, and for waste attendant on duplication of facilities in a competitive system.

Consequently, the productive power of the American economy rose steadily though not dramatically throughout the years following World War II. This rate of growth in the gross national product, which is the total money value of all goods and services produced in the nation in a year, is unsatisfactory to many liberals who believe our potentiality to be much greater. Nor is the nature of the goods and services, specifically the proportion produced by the private segment as compared to the public segment, satisfactory to critics of the affluent society who say we starve our social services, such as education, while consumer gadgets are produced in excess.

Yet the long-term economic trend is upward, although whether the rise is sufficiently rapid or well-balanced is in debate. With the rise comes more leisure time with attendant perplexities on how to use the new leisure well. Students of how we spend the time on our hands report that mostly we watch TV programs (while, in turn, the TV industry, via its quantitative ratings, watches us). We visit our friends, putter about our homes, read some and drive our cars about. Sometimes, prizing income and possibly fearing leisure's freedoms, we take on second jobs.

The general upward climb of the economy, with accompanying growth in the potential for the uses of leisure and with persisting pockets of poverty, has influenced education. Despite the relative lag in support of education, school systems in general have increased staff salaries, new buildings and available equipment. True, the increases are insufficient for the immensity of the task of education in the last third of the 20th century that lies ahead.

Some schools have improved programs of economic education and have made them more realistic introductions to current concepts and relationships and less the purveyors of outmoded myths. Fewer schools have responded to the tremendous challenge inherent in the new leisure through developing an education for the use of the increasingly abundant time Americans have and will have on their hands.

Pockets of Poverty. Despite economic growth and its corollary of increased leisure, a substantial proportion of our population shares only scantily in the goods and services the economic system can and does produce. Recognition of this phenomena was characteristic of 1964 in the United States when poverty was rediscovered. Previously a few socialists, such as Michael Harrington, author of *The Other America,* had been reporting the persistence of poverty. However, with his accession to office, President Lyndon B. Johnson lent the force of his leadership to further a war against poverty. Geographically, poverty centered in Appalachia, in regions of the south and in the overcrowded core of the central cities. Ethnically, poverty struck hardest at the Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Spanish Americans and mountain whites. Age-wise, poverty most affected the very old and the occupationally obsolete. Poverty was largely invisible to the prospering middle classes, for it hid up back roads and in back rooms and in slum areas to which the respectable never went.

Concern is currently intensifying for an education program for the areas marked by poverty so that youth might escape from the vicious spiral created by cultural deprivation. General and specialized education are both needed in the war on poverty. General education at elementary and high school levels is needed to change perceptions, aspirations, ways of living. Specialized education is needed to develop people with the skills and abilities required in today's occupational picture. So far the stress in educational programs has been too largely on the specialized vocational aspect of the total problem.

The Flourishing of Bureaucracy. Still another trend on the domestic scene which accelerated was that of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy, though often applied only to government by conservatives thundering against whatever national administration is in power, is actually an objective social phenomenon of the times characterizing impartially business, the military and a variety of social institutions including education, as well as government. A high degree of expertness and continuity is required to run today's complicated structures in business, the military, government and social institutions. Men die but the complicated machinery of social organization must carry on. That bureaucracy which is as characteristic of business as of government was brilliantly illustrated in William H. Whyte's *The Organization Man.*

One of the great shapers of intellectual tools in sociology, Max Weber, as early as the beginning of the 20th century, related many of his keenest insights to bureaucracy. In Weber's view, bureaucracy is characterized by fixed rules, a hierarchy of authority, heavy reliance on documents and "the files," expert training of the official, a demand by the system for his full working capacity and technical learning in order to regulate matters abstractly and impersonally. Those within the bureaucracy struggle for still greater security and order through rules stressing tenure, seniority, retirement, etc. Occasionally, charismatic leadership shakes up the status quo through revolutionary movements which, in time, relapse into new versions of bureaucracy. Weber saw the attendant recurrent rigidity as potentially stifling yet as inescapable in complex societies which value order and efficiency.

Bureaucracy has made its influence felt in education too; the probability is that still stronger influence is in the offing. Bureaucracy is reflected in the lives of both faculty members and students in large schools and in the daily experiences of staff members in large educational organizations. For instance, a typical manifestation of bureaucracy occurs in large cities, as those engaged in discussions of the woes of the schools repetitively use the phrase, "the board of education." This all-encompassing expression is applied to actions, both desirable and undesirable, of a host of individual human beings, each with major or minor responsibilities, who relate in any fashion to the social control of the school system. The global phrase, "board of education," seems to provide a kind of invisibility for every functionary in the typical large school system. When a wise or foolish decision is made by Mr. X, he receives neither credit nor blame. All is attributed to an Olympian "board of education."

A Choice for Educators

Education, Mirror or Improver of Society? In such a setting of change characterized by such trends as these, the choice before professional educators is not a new one. The same choice has been offered them throughout many eras. Educators may *accept* the tendencies of the times in which they find themselves and develop school programs which *reflect* all prevalent social forces. Or educators may *appraise* the tendencies of the times and develop school programs through which the learners can *reflect upon* and help shape social forces. The former approach conceives the school as a mirror of society. The second approach conceives the school as an instrument for the improvement of individuals and society.

Powerless Man in the Powerful Society

There is a danger to individuals and to society in an education which accepts uncritically and reflects unthinkingly. There may be a particular danger today. The danger is that some forces which mutually reinforce each other may take us down roads contrary to the American democratic dream of a common man who is free, responsible and significant. Some tendencies of the times, if uncritically accepted and implemented by education, could lead to the powerless man in the powerful society.

Take employment, for instance. As jobs become more highly specialized and more subject to automation and as the job environment becomes more complex and bureaucratic, the wage earner may become increasingly insignificant. The total process of production, or of rendering services of which he is one small part, may become steadily less comprehensible to him. He may know his specialized contribution and even perform it well but he may have no identification or satisfaction with the enterprise as a whole. In short, his work may lack meaning to him.

For many a worker the possibility exists that his occupation will vanish. Several decades ago Charles Chaplin made a film, *Modern Times,* in which Chaplin's little fellow was a cog in the machine who even continued to twitch during his off-hours as he tried to tighten nonexistent nuts on an invisible machine. But a contemporary Chaplinesque little fellow might arrive at the factory to discover that the machine in which he was a cog had itself disappeared and that a new machine with mechanical hands now did his work.

True, as jobs disappear new industries have developed with proliferating related occupations. Historically, the automobile is a classical illustration cited to deny Ricardo's dismal prophecies. True, much remains to be done to develop the public sector of the economy. Many people will be needed to meet the need for better education and sufficient social services. Yet these factors only complicate the total employment situation and make appraisal of economic assumptions even more essential.

Or consider the role of the average man as a citizen. The problems on the international scene are vast and formidable, as even our brief sketch has indicated. The areas of secrecy expand as highly relevant information for intelligent decision making becomes restricted—and perhaps necessarily so—to a few policy makers in government. Expertise grows more formidable and the common man has little access to the specialists' knowledge. Even his perennial fortes, common sense, knowledge and sound moral judgment, are denigrated in a time when friends and enemies quickly trade roles on the international scene and when moral values clash sharply. The common man risks becoming a civic cipher in world affairs.

On the national scene, problems also threaten to be beyond his ken—automation, tax policies, population, etc. A TV commentator once drily explained why legislators were spending what appeared to be an excessive amount of time on a trivial legislative matter, "They can understand this one."

The powerless man in the powerful society has a variety of possible escapes. He may embrace the ways of the large bureaucracy and spend his working life as a socially adjusted organization man skillfully manipulating his fringe benefits. He may become a spokesman of the new illiteracy, glibly acquainted with the gossip bandied about by celebrities and with the names repeated over and over on TV games and in TV host-guest format. He may settle for the passivity or unreflective absorption of unselected entertainment.

The powerless man in the powerful society may also take a more aggressive route by joining the alienated in their private worlds. He may choose to spend his adolescence in a teen-age subculture, self-segregated from adult life. He may search for power in delinquency and shelter under the accepting arm of his gang. As an adult, he may follow the ways of irrational coteries, such as the beats or the futilitarians. In the manner of Paddy Chayevsky's *Marty,* he may identify with a group that aimlessly hangs around waiting for action. He may become an extremist, sensing conspiracy everywhere while himself conspiring.

Are such forces and possibilities to be reflected and reinforced through an education which will mirror them? Or should they be examined, appraised and studied by both educators and students? Do we pass *on* the culture in the sense of uncritically conveying it to the young, or do we *pass* on the culture in the sense of judging and appraising it and fostering judgment and appraisal by the young?

Appraising and Reflecting Upon Social Forces

An alternative to mirroring forces is the approach of appraising the tendencies of the times and developing school programs through which young people may reflect upon social forces. Such an approach holds hope for the improvement of the lives of individuals. It holds promise for the betterment of society.

To appraise, calls for a philosophy of education, in addition to understanding of the social realities of the times. Our source of direction is found in our guiding philosophy. Historically, that philosophy in America has been rooted in the democratic way of life. Yet, as Paul Klohr reports in the last chapter of this volume, "Values or systematic philosophy as a source is currently being given less attention" in education. Without philosophy, mindlessness vaults into the saddle like Stephen Leacock's character who "flung himself from the room, flung himself upon his horse, and rode madly off in all directions." What is the point in pursuing answers if one refuses to ask the right questions?

Educators must appraise the tendencies of the times, not mindlessly reflect social forces. The essence of the way of intelligence is inquiry; the essence of anti-intellectualism is to mirror mindlessly.

Tasks for Public Education. Two attempts to appraise tendencies and forces through identifying tasks and issues will be quoted here. They are cited not as model formulations but rather as indications of attempts which must be made to call attention to tasks and frontiers which are too often neglected.

In the final chapter of *Education in a Changing Society*, the writer of the report, Richard I. Miller,[2] sets forth "seven tasks facing public education—tasks rooted in educational values and social forces and trends."

1. Coping with the knowledge explosion
2. Developing rational thinking
3. Teaching controversial issues
4. Developing social responsibility
5. Building international competence
6. Focusing on the individual
7. Maintaining integrity and courage.

Another analysis of major necessities in education today was developed between 1960 and 1964 by the author of this chapter, writing and speaking as an individual educator and proceeding independently of the social analysis advanced above through the NEA Project on Instruction. The degree of overlap of the chosen frontiers with the tasks cited in the influential national project is encouraging to any who believe that both group and individual analyses are desirable in a time when the social frontiers too often are neglected. Eight educational frontiers are described which "involve the education of individuals in interaction with social forces in this best of times and worst of times."

1. Helping children and youth to come to grips with the international problems of their times
2. Developing democratic human relationships among young people of varied races, religions, nationality backgrounds, and social classes
3. Teaching young people to participate as intelligent citizens on the great human issues of our times
4. Educating young people for a society in which the unskilled and undereducated are obsolete

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[2] Project on Instruction. *Education in a Changing Society.* Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1963. p. 122-30.

5. Developing young people who are unique individuals, characterized by individual differences and a variety of needs and interests

6. Helping each and every boy and girl to develop into the best he or she is capable of becoming

7. Encouraging young people to cultivate reflective thought, to use maximally the method of intelligence

8. Answering the fundamental question as to human knowledge, "Knowledge for what?" [3]

The crux of the educational issue today is whether educators will passively reflect trends and forces or whether they will participate in their shaping through the reflective appraisal and the development of educational programs for learners so that individuals and society may be improved.[4] This question is vital to many aspects of the work of supervisors and curriculum directors who represent educational leadership in a climate of change.

The balance of this chapter will focus upon how such leaders can now relate more effectively to one selected educational tendency of the many tendencies which closely affect their work. We refer to their participation in curriculum making in a time of reconstruction of school subjects by scholars in the academic disciplines.

Educational Leadership in a Setting of Change

Reconstruction of the Disciplines

In the light of recent educational history, we can now see why curriculum making through projects for the reconstruction of the separate subjects gained impetus in the America of the 1950's and continues into the 1960's. The earliest glimmerings of the projects came about through the sensitivity of able scholars to the obsolescence of content in the fields which they knew best. New knowledge was exploding. As the Great Debate on education took place in the 1950's, the field of education became the nation's table-talk. True, some of the talk was excessive and vituperative and hysterical. Yet, in the process, the voices of many scholars who had formerly been immersed in university and research concerns were heard. Some years before Sputnik, some of the better of the scholars made attempts to begin the reconstruction of the separate subjects which they knew best.

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[3] William Van Til. "The Genuine Educational Frontiers." *Saturday Review*, April 18, 1964. p. 66-68.

[4] It is conceivable that 1964 may go down in educational history as the year of a turning point. The attempt by some educators and governmental leaders to focus national attention on such tasks and frontiers as those described above. achieved some measure of success in 1964. Aided by the efforts of the National Education Association, the 88th Congress in 1964 broadened the National Defense Education Act to include improvement of the qualifications of individuals "who were engaged in or preparing to engage in the teaching, or supervising, or training of teachers of history, geography, modern foreign languages, reading, or English in elementary or secondary schools" and those "who are engaged in or preparing to engage in the teaching of disadvantaged youth and are, by virtue of their service or future service in elementary or secondary schools, enrolling substantial numbers of culturally, economically, socially, and educationally handicapped youth in need of special training" (Public Law 88-65, National Defense Education Act Amendments, 1964, Title II). The Civil Rights Law contains pro-

Sputnik and the accompanying ferment gave major impetus to the movement to reexamine subject matter. The citizenry of the United States was appalled at the notion that the great technology of America ranked second in space probing to the Soviet Union. National pride was offended; national goals were threatened; physical survival seemed at stake.

Hard on the heels of Sputnik came national legislation to support aspects of education. Certain subjects were fostered and favored for their potentialities in defense of the nation. The title of a highly influential piece of national legislation which singled out certain fields for financial support made no secret of the intention of the act. It was called the National *Defense* Education Act and it supported training, equipment and programs in fields deemed vital to defense. Science, mathematics, modern languages, and guidance (often conceived as a way of steering youth into the three former fields) were the areas selected for favor. Advocacy of such preferential treatment was often couched in terms of stern warning that upon these fields depended survival of a free people in a world in which Communism moved remorselessly forward. The end result was that both national interest and available funds coincided. The scholars had a genuine opportunity to reconstruct the content of their separate subjects, particularly on the high school level.

The procedures used by most university leaders in the earliest

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visions "to render technical assistance to such applicants [school boards, etc.] in the preparation, adoption, and implementation of plans for the desegregation of public schools," "for special training designed to improve the ability of teachers, supervisors, counselors, and other elementary or secondary school personnel to deal effectively with special educational problems occasioned by desegregation," "for in-service training in dealing with problems incident to desegregation," and for employment of "specialists to advise in problems incident to desegregation" (Title 4). In 1964, the Congress also enacted an Economic Opportunity Act (the so-called Anti-Poverty Bill) intended to help the culturally disadvantaged avoid cultural obsolescence (Public Law 88-452). The Manpower Development and Training Act Amendment refocused the program on training of unemployed youth and functional illiterates (Public Law 88-214). President Lyndon B. Johnson, reelected by a landslide in 1964, promised high priority for improvement of education in the years ahead.

projects in the separate subject fields were predictable and, indeed, quite natural, given their backgrounds and perceptions. To many leaders of reconstruction of the separate subjects, it was clear that the way to proceed was to call together university scholars who most intimately knew the particular subject, along with some skilled high school teachers of the subject who might help especially at the methodological level. Funds were readily available from government agencies and foundations. Consequently, meetings and conferences were held at which the specialists in the subject matter attempted to discard the obsolescent and set forth the needed new knowledge. Staffs of specialists then labored long and hard over new content and approaches. Welcome to such sessions were those who knew the particular separate subject matter; irrelevant to such sessions were those who were not specialists in the separate subject matter being reworked.

The scholars engaged in reconstructing the subject matter which they knew—for instance, physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, English, modern languages and economics—were and are highly intelligent people. Many of them already knew or quickly saw that to pupils in secondary education more important than amassing isolated bits of knowledge was the understanding of principles, the development of processes for inquiry, the understanding of relationships. The best among the scholars developed genuinely new insights into secondary school education. Many others reaffirmed insights which leaders in professional education had long taken for granted; the ideas of John Dewey, for instance, were often rediscovered and restated. The less perceptive occasionally proclaimed already established insights as their personal new discoveries. Out of the work in the separate subject matters, new and improved course content developed. Obsolescent materials were discarded; new content was included. Principles, relationships and processes of inquiry were stressed in the better of the projects.

Assumptions as to Curricular Change

The scholars proved somewhat less insightful on procedures for insuring that the changes which they envisioned would be broadly accepted. What John K. Galbraith has termed "the conventional wisdom" was followed, and little time, money or energy was apparently spent on validating the effectiveness of the various assumptions as to curriculum change. For instance, one among several techniques for curriculum change long used in American education and occasionally critically evaluated, is the preparation of new textbooks. Assumptions as to textbooks as techniques for curriculum change varied from project to project; they included preparation of a single textbook for a physics course, preparation of three books as alternatives for a biology course, and identification of concepts in economics for stress in social studies rather than preparation of an economics textbook or textbooks.

The Central Question. Similarly, proposals advanced by individual scholars for dissemination of new programs ranged from dependence on established local and state procedures to advocacy of a national curriculum for the schools. The latter alternative has always been particularly attractive to true believers, certain that theirs is "the way." No inter-project research program was developed to invest time and energy in investigation of the processes of curriculum change. Unanswered was a central question: "Which processes and procedures in curriculum development hold greatest promise for the revision of all subject matters contributing to a balanced and interdependent program in the American educational systems characterized by local control of schools?"

Related Problems for Solution

Scholars and Professional Educators. There was scant recognition by the specialists in the separate subjects or the government agencies or the foundations that there existed professional educators with experience in and insight into the difficult business of curriculum change. For instance, many superintendents, supervisors and curriculum directors in American schools have learned through experience that effective curriculum change does not come about simply through edict or by publication of materials alone, as "common sense" glibly assumes. Changing the curriculum necessitates changing the people who have relationships to the actual learning experiences of children and youth. Hard-bitten veterans of curriculum campaigns have even been heard to say that changing the curriculum is like moving a cemetery. Until you try it, you do not realize how many friends the dead still have.

As curriculum development through the separate subject matters proceeded, many doubts and uncertainties were expressed by the subject matter specialists themselves. These expressions of doubt and uncertainty have largely gone unremarked. Yet they open the door to genuine opportunities for cooperative relationships among professional educators who are willing to discard their crying towels over lack of involvement in subject matter projects and scholars who are willing to recognize that their expertness and scope have finite limitations.

For instance, the sponsors of new projects in the separate fields soon found themselves facing the acute difficulties of dissemination. It is all very well to prepare new content but to get that new content widely used in the educational systems of the United States, oriented toward local control, provides a formidable exercise in academic logistics. True, many school systems, including both perceptively forward-looking and opportunistically bandwagon-riding groups, began using the new approaches. Yet many systems and many communities were untouched. The size of the dissemination problem appalls even the administrators of giant funds and agencies. For instance, on August 20, 1963, Jerome Weisner, chief science advisor to President Kennedy, told the General Assembly of the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics that although startling discoveries have been made regarding the capabilities of the young for learning mathematics and the sciences, these findings are not being applied on a broad scale.

In-service Teacher Education. Part of the problem faced by the sponsors of the new subject field projects was the large scale task of preparing the present teachers of the entire nation to handle the new knowledge. Even the substantial help of the National Defense Education Act, which now amounts to $181,000,000 for the first five years to strengthen instruction in science, mathematics and modern foreign languages, could not provide sufficient summer offerings for all of the present teachers of the many separate subjects. Still more in-service education of teachers through workshops, conferences and courses sponsored by many school systems and universities was needed if new content and methods were to be widely used.

Preservice Teacher Education. For the better preparation of future teachers, college courses in education required updating. If new approaches to teaching the separate subjects were to be learned by new teachers, professional education courses in methods of teaching the varied subjects must especially be revised. Yet, paradoxically, despite this clear necessity, some among the scholars were demanding the virtual abolition of methods courses.

An even more arduous task, as yet unrecognized, was to reeducate college teachers of the liberal arts. If high school teachers were to learn new subject matter to communicate to their students, they must be taught that new content by the professors in the liberal arts college departments. After all, despite the sedulously cultivated myths of the proponents of basic education, less than one-fifth of the courses taken by prospective high school teachers are in professional education. More than four-fifths of the courses taken by prospective high school teachers are in general education, majors, minors and electives, all taught primarily by liberal arts professors.

Separate Subjects or Interdisciplinary Approach? In addition to problems of dissemination and teacher education, the specialists in separate subject matters encountered difficulties with interdisciplinary fields and with the relationships of each separate subject matter to the others.

For instance, some fields proved tough nuts to crack for the separate subject matter specialist approach. The social sciences, for example, include at least economics, geography, anthropology, sociology, social psychology, political science and history (world, American, ancient, European, area studies, Western civilization, etc.). Should each separate subject be reconstructed and allowed brief reign in its own kingdom on some particular grade level of the school program of social studies? What about the interdisciplinary problem areas which are the heart of social education such as international education, racial and religious relationships, labor-management problems and conservation of natural resources? Was there more hope in regarding the social studies as a single integral field based on interrelated subjects and proceeding accordingly?

The specialists in the separate subjects also faced similar perplexities as they contemplated entering the vast domain of the elementary school. Through the expenditure of an estimated five million dollars, the Physical Science Study Committee had demonstrated that a textbook accompanied by supplementary aids could be prepared for the bright students among those who elected physics at the high school level. Yet would life be better in America if every third grader, regardless of intellect or of family and community backgrounds, were taught through "the third grade textbook"—or would America merely move closer to 1984? In which of the many separate subjects should such third grade textbooks be developed—and why these? Should the separate discipline approach or a more interrelated approach be used at the third grade level in elementary schools, given what is known about child development?

The greatest perplexity of all centered about the relationship of each of the reconstructed subject matters to the pupils. To teach all that the separate subject matter specialists wanted to teach would tax the very calendar unmercifully. Each subject wanted abundant time. Even a six-day week, a twelve-hour day, a twelve-month school year would not appease the Gargantuan appetite of the separate subject specialists. It is little wonder that some looked to a super-referee, a national curriculum, to adjudicate their jurisdictional disputes.

Ingredients for Solutions

Because of such problems inescapably confronting projects, agencies and foundations, an opportunity for cooperation among separate subject scholars and professional educators exists. Hopefully, a trend toward accepting the opportunity has recently become perceptible.

Professional Educator's Role. Hindsight now recognizes a natural, and perhaps even inevitable, accompaniment of the procedures used in reconstructing separate subjects. Many educators were by and large bypassed, especially curriculum directors, supervisors, superintendents, university specialists in teacher education and others. The perception of the subject matter specialists often was that such "generalists" were not needed. Nor were many of the professional educators particularly ingenious in devising ways of becoming involved in the new movement. The result was a degree of isolation and attendant resentment on the part of many professional educators whose life work was the achievement of the best possible entire curriculum composed of learning opportunities in many subject matters and interdisciplinary areas designed for all of the children and youth of all of the people.

Yet, if we really intend to change and improve the curriculum in America, such professional educators are essential to widest acceptance and implementation of the worthwhile in the reconstructed content and methodology fostered by the subject matter specialists. Not even the rabid anti-educationists have yet proposed a revolution to liquidate superintendents, supervisors, curriculum workers, or educational organizations. (So far, Siberia has been proposed only for professors of education.)

That pivotal professional educators have a role in the wide dissemination of proposed curriculum changes can scarcely be denied. The very nature of the specializations of these supposed "generalists" places them at the center of educational enterprises in thousands of American communities. The responsibility of the superintendent is to administer the educational system, of the supervisor to supervise teaching, of the curriculum director to develop the total program, of the teacher of education courses to educate for a profession, of the educational organization to develop and disseminate the best ideas.

Each professional has his specialization with attendant operational skills and ways of appraising developments. The good superintendent of schools knows and works with the complex intermeshing of human and physical resources characteristic of the involved social institution called a school system. The good supervisor knows the ways of working with teachers to foster their professional growth in insights and to eventuate in changes in the learning experiences of the young. The good curriculum director knows and fosters learning opportunities which are based soundly upon philosophical, psychological and sociological foundations and which draw upon many subjects and areas. So it is also with the good historian of education, the educational psychologist, the methods specialist and so through a long list of specialized competencies in teacher education. In short, the good professional educator is also a scholar in his own specialization.

Role of Specialist. Each specialist is as proud of and as competent in his specialization as the good scholar in his specialized subject matter field. Each is as distressed at unexamined assumptions or inadequate approaches or unjustified presumptions of expertness as is the scholar in his special field of competency. Each has a responsibility to contribute to the evaluation of the proposals made by the separate subject specialists.[5] For effective dissemination of the winnowed best, specialists in professional education must be utilized, unless curriculum reconstruction in separate subjects is to eventuate in costly paper proposals reaching the few rather than the many.

Role of Generalist. Along with being specialists, many professional educators are also generalists—and quite properly so. In the best sense, the word "generalist" implies a competence in education as a whole, in the totality of the program of education for all children and youth. Some among the participants in educational change must bear the responsibility for the long and comprehensive view of the curriculum. By the nature of their responsibilities, superintendents, supervisors, curriculum directors, teachers of teachers should encourage broad and balanced programs of elementary and secondary education. Whether they wish to or not, they are forced to appraise and evaluate new departures. Not everything that is proposed should be accepted. As a matter of fact, because of sheer volume alone, not everything that is proposed *can* be accepted. The final touchstone of generalists must be the best possible entire program for the education of individual children and youth.

Dialogue Between Scholars and Professional Educators. In the dialogue which should accompany the extension of their cooperation with scholars in the separate subjects, professional educators as generalists may well suggest such irritating yet pertinent reminders as these:

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[5] For instance see: *Using Current Curriculum Developments.* Report of the Commission on Current Curriculum Developments. Robert S. Gilchrist, editor. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1963. 119 p.

Let us take into account the wide diversity of young people and the variety of their backgrounds which necessitate differentiation in education.

Let us foster balance, an undramatic yet essential concept in an era in which the enthusiasts for a single aspect are more readily heard.

Let us develop an education which includes general education for all plus as wide a range of specialized education as the nation can afford.

Let us speak up for the study of human problems which are interdisciplinary. This is no time to ignore the study of international relations, the local community, roles of government, labor-management relations, economic roads for a democracy, the natural environment, the great technology, propaganda and public opinion, education, intercultural relations, values and beliefs, planning a career, leisure and recreation, health, orientation to the school, self-understanding, family living, etc.

If scholars in the separate subjects and professional educators can recognize together that new content and the curriculum as a whole are each important, the way may be open to explore fundamental curricular problems. Assuming that the winnowed best of new content has been included and assuming that the wholeness of the school program has been recognized and respected, all involved in the change could test the product by such standards as these:

Does the school program now make a significant contribution to the development of such democratic values as reflective thinking, the worth of the individual and the common welfare?

Does the school program now make a significant contribution to illuminating the social realities which characterize our times?

Does the school program now represent the best we know of how people learn?

Does the school program now make a significant contribution to meeting the personal and social needs of American children and youth?

In the interest of progress in American education we should foster a trend now perceptible and develop a more extensive dialogue between those who work in the separate subject fields and those who work in professional education. Both groups have immediate interests in disseminating the selected best developed through current projects. Some day both groups must face together designs for the curriculum as a whole. We cannot eternally improve and distribute the separate parts of our educational vehicle. Not if we want to go places in the best possible models.

Surely there must be somewhere the vision, energy and support for so essential a dialogue. In American education we have had enough of isolation and too much of billingsgate. Let us try listening to each other and learning from each other.

In summary, in today's social setting of change, a new dimension, space, must be taken into account. The international setting changes from polarization to pluralism in power. The development of science and technology accelerates. Urbanization increases. New voices are heard on civil rights. Economic growth is accompanied by more leisure time. Pockets of poverty persist. Bureaucracy flourishes. Each trend affects education.

Educators face the choice of accepting and reflecting tendencies and forces or appraising and fostering reflection upon tendencies and forces. The school may be a mirror or an improver of society. Uncritical acceptance and unthinking mirroring could lead to the powerless man in the powerful society. Preferable is appraisal and reflection upon tendencies through analysis of tasks and frontiers. Analysis must be followed by programs.

In today's setting of change, reconstruction of disciplines has taken place. Problems of dissemination are acute. Improvements in in-service and preservice education are needed. Professional educators have significant contributions to make both as disseminators and appraisers. They have roles to play both as specialists and generalists.

An increasing dialogue among academic scholars and professional scholars is essential. In the extending dialogue, professional educators must contribute ideas on school curriculums seen as wholes. They must suggest standards against which the success of new programs may be judged. Academic scholars and professional educators must each listen and learn.

Chapter Two

Bases for Decisions[*]

Ole Sand

THE enormous diversity and complexity of the American educational enterprise strain the ability of most people, including professionals, to see education whole. E[illegible] a stake in education—a cliché, yet like most clichés a tru[illegible] and there is a wide variety of opinion as to what the schools are expected to accomplish, particularly when events are precipitating change.

A great many people have both the duty and the responsibility to make decisions regarding the schools. Of these, supervisory and curriculum specialists are in positions of considerable responsibility and vulnerability. Their planning cooperatively with the various staffs involved has an immediate effect on their schools. Such planning is almost the final stage in the interpretation and application of broad theories and is the nub of everyone's aims and expectations. Curriculum directors and supervisors have to be continually sensitive to the relationships between their immediate tasks and the broad sweep of advance and change.

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[*] This chapter draws heavily and often directly from the four-volume report of the NEA Project on Instruction of which the writer was director. Special credit is due Dorothy M. Fraser, Dorothy Neubauer, Margery Thompson, John I. Goodlad and Richard I. Miller. Robert Sinclair, staff member of the Center for the Study of Instruction, NEA, as part of the Washington Fellowship Program, assisted in the editing of the chapter.

Such leadership decisions cannot be made in a vacuum. The questions in this yearbook on education in a climate of change can be resolved only on the basis of a deliberate analysis of the forces which shape education. The forces causing change are discussed in Chapter One. This present chapter addresses itself to four sets of problems from which the supervisor or curriculum director cannot escape: (a) analyzing three kinds of data-sources that are bases for decisions—these sources including societal forces causing change, knowledge of the human being as a learner and the accumulated body of organized knowledge about the world and man; (b) screening the data from these sources against the values and educational aims which society sets for education; (c) identifying important kinds of decisions; and (d) determining what can be and what should be.

Sound decisions about the kind of educational program that is good for a given people at a given time in history are made in the context of that society and depend on clear analysis of the forces and values shaping the society. Today the special urgency that dictates educational reappraisal and anticipates educational change stems from three basic but complex sets of facts:

Contemporary society is changing fundamentally and rapidly. It is changing so basically and so swiftly that we have difficulty fitting ourselves into the present and projecting ourselves into the future. We, and the oncoming generations, must look to the schools for help in understanding, living with and directing social change.

The almost incredible explosion of knowledge threatens to overwhelm us unless we can find, and quickly, some intelligent solutions to problems created by the new and growing wealth of information. What knowledge to select and how to organize this knowledge for learning—these are two of the problems that require continuing attention.

Significant discoveries are being made about people and learning—discoveries that emphasize the vast range of differences among and within individuals and point to the great variety of ways in which people can learn. At a time when there is so much to be learned, and so urgent a need for such learning, we must create new teaching methods and adapt old ones to accelerate and enrich the teaching-learning process.

In Chapter One some strong forces causing change have been analyzed. These were: science and technology, economic growth, large bureaucratic organizations, leisure time, civil rights, urbanization, population growth, and international interdependence and conflict.

Society as a Base

A brief analysis of one force, urbanization, illustrates the kind of study needed in the schools and points up some knotty problems the supervisor and the curriculum director face. The cluster of problems related to urbanization represents the most serious domestic challenge confronting the American people and their schools today. Two dimensions of urbanization—the movement to suburbia and the slum problem—deserve special attention.

In 1950, 70 percent of the urban population was in the central cities and 30 percent in the suburban fringe areas. By 1960, the ratio was 60-40. This pattern of transfer has been particularly characteristic in many older eastern cities like New York and Boston.

Generally speaking, the residents of suburbia are predominantly middle class; many of them value material success and social mobility. They are leaving the central city areas largely to individuals in the lower socioeconomic brackets.

This exodus of middle class people to the suburbs draws leadership and money from the central city area. This results in a depreciation of the central city neighborhood and the growth of slums as less money becomes available to fight congestion and obsolescence. As the exodus to the suburbs continues, even less money and leadership can be mobilized to stop the downward cycle.

The type of people living in the slums today has also changed. James B. Conant, in *Slums and Suburbs,*[1] has noted that the current slum dweller is no longer the white foreign immigrant from a stable society bound by traditional pride of family and strong church connections—the immigrant who knew that his predecessors had worked their way out of slum poverty and that he and his children could do the same thing.

The culturally deprived or disadvantaged youth growing up in the slum areas today has less chance to escape his environment than did the immigrant child of 50 years ago despite a much higher level of prosperity in the nation. Figures show that in 1961 the unemployment rate among nonschool youths under twenty years of age was approximately 17 percent, or *three times* the national average. In some slum areas, over 50 percent of the male youth were out of school and out of work.

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[1] James B. Conant. *Slums and Suburbs.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961.

Both John Kenneth Galbraith [2] and President Johnson [3] have proposed a federal assault on poverty which would bring the best in education to the worst areas of depression in the nation. Galbraith proposed that the federal government should select the 100 lowest income communities in the nation, provide them with first-rate schools and staff the schools with "elite" young teachers "in the manner of the Peace Corps." [4] He suggested that this program should receive 90 percent federal financing, just as the interstate highway program does.

Related to the impact of urbanization is the increasing vigor of the Negroes' struggle, particularly within the past two years, for equal civil rights. Their impatience with gradualism and token progress in both the South and the North, that has sparked a revolutionary movement, places more stress on the schools than at any time since the Supreme Court decision of 1954 relating to school desegregation.

These changes affect the lives of students profoundly; an intelligent awareness of such changes is only the beginning toward shaping them to positive rather than negative effects. The schools cannot correct housing patterns, employment practices or voting registration laws any more than they can call back the scientific discoveries that presage man's control—whether for preservation or destruction—of nature. The schools can help people to acquire the general educational skills and wisdom they need in order to effect improvements in their personal lives and society. This much, at the very least, the schools can and should do and curriculum directors must take account of this necessity.

The Learner as a Base

Curriculum planners must understand the learner as well as the society. Knowledge about the learning potential of the human being is as important for educational reform as is an understanding of social forces.

Investigations by psychologists during the past 15 years have provided much significant information about thinking, learning and personality. Their findings are helping lay a better foundation for changes in curriculum and in methods of teaching. Today a closer connection between psychology and the practice of teaching exists than has been the case for many years. Experimentation in programed learning is one example of many such links. Also, more academicians are becoming interested in the ways children learn . . . witness the work of Zacharias, Seaborg, Begle and others in this regard.

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[2] John Kenneth Galbraith. "Assault on Poverty by Education." *The Washington Post*, December 14, 1963.

[3] Lyndon B. Johnson. "State of the Union Message." January 8, 1964, and subsequent legislation.

[4] John Kenneth Galbraith, *op. cit.*

A central fact, which is not always easily recognized by educators, is that every child has an inner push and urge to become a more complete self, to learn what can become meaningful to him. The art of teaching lies in keeping this force alive and free and developing. To do so, it is essential to understand the learner, to know what he is working on, what he is up against, what his basic assets are.

It seems clear now that development is achieved through learning, probably constrained by biochemical processes that in some sense are genetically regulated. The idea of development as emergence according to a precise timetable is disappearing. Most forward-looking psychologists now see the child not as the innocent victim of society but as the creative product of society. There can be both excellence and mental health, provided we do not go overboard in either direction.[5] If the school's educational program holds little or no meaning for the students, the chances are great that the learning which occurs will be negligible and that such learning will not be long retained.

Some of the concerns that seem most significant in educational planning and practice, in terms of the learner, are the following:

Recognizing and nurturing creativity
Promoting the development of responsibility
Promoting the development of positive self-attitudes
Relating learning to development in children
Evaluating the learner's motivations
Identifying and providing for inter-individual differences
Providing for intra-individual differences
Recognizing, accepting and taking cognizance of social-group differences.

Individual differences are illustrated here as an example of the kinds of analyses that need to be made about each of these concerns.

The supervisor or the curriculum director obviously needs to be familiar with the facts about individual differences. For example, children entering kindergarten or first grade differ from one another markedly in their readiness to profit from particular learning opportunities. Intelligence tests provide only one measure of these differences. Some fifth-grade youngsters compare favorably in mental age with high school freshmen; others use language and manipulate numbers about at the level of first graders.

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[5] These ideas are drawn from an unpublished letter by Lee J. Cronbach, Professor of Educational Psychology, Stanford University.

Learners also vary widely in school achievement. It is well known that the spread in average achievement in an elementary school class slightly exceeds the number of the grade level.

In addition to the differences among individuals in every aspect of their development, there is compelling evidence about human variability within an individual. One child reads well and calculates poorly; another calculates well and reads poorly. Obviously, the sharp differences in interests and abilities within one child should warn the supervisor or the curriculum director against making flat assumptions about the potential of a person who is identified as "average," "superior" or "low" in intelligence.

Goodlad gives an example:

> A slow-learning child in the fourth grade, with average achievement of second grade, ninth month, may score fourth grade, first month in arithmetic computation but only first grade, fourth month in paragraph meaning. Another child in the fourth grade, with average achievement of fifth grade, second month, may score third grade, ninth month in arithmetic computation, and seventh grade, fourth month in paragraph meaning.
>
> In what grades do these two "fourth grade" children belong? If grade placement is to be based on achievement, each child belongs in several grades. The first child belongs in the second grade for reading and the fourth for arithmetic; the second child belongs in the third grade for arithmetic and the seventh for reading. But where does one set the limits? For arithmetic, the first child is about to move into the third grade and the second child into the fourth. Should they be transferred if it is only mid-year?
>
> If all learners are moved subject-by-subject, there will be great ranges in chronological age, social maturity, and interests. Should ten-year-olds who read at the second-grade level be placed with six-year-olds who read at the second-grade level? What about the fourth-grader reading at the seventh-grade level? Is he to be transported to the junior high school? When such questions as these are considered, subject-by-subject classification as the answer to the question of appropriate grade placement slips into obscurity —except for would-be school reformers who have not thought the problems through in the light of appropriate data.[6]

[6] John I. Goodlad. *Planning and Organizing for Teaching.* Report of the NEA Project on Instruction. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1963.

Organized Knowledge as a Base

Because scientific and scholarly work is now so extensive and because so many people are engaged in such work, the rate of revision is swift. Teaching the disciplines in this situation clearly requires teaching something more permanent and more pervasive than a catalogue of factual knowledge. Accumulation of information is not the primary purpose of good education, but facts are essential for understanding the world and man, for meeting one's daily needs and for stimulating further learning.

Since about 1955, a vivid awareness of this problem has led some scholars and researchers to explore ways of selecting, organizing and teaching available information to make it more intelligible and more usable. Committees of physicists, chemists, mathematicians, biologists, geographers, economists, and panels of social scientists, historians, linguists and specialists in English have worked devotedly and imaginatively on the development of elementary and secondary school courses. A series of useful reports, experimental textbooks, teachers' manuals, films and curriculum outlines has come from these committees and individuals. Several of the learned societies have established committees to work on the problems of school curricula. In quantity, the product of the seven years' work outweighs efforts of the 50 preceding years; in content, the material is much different from that which scholars have given the schools in previous decades.

In general, the recent studies shift the balance in learning from *inventory* to *transaction*. An inventory of learning may result in an accumulation of inert knowledge. A transaction in learning occurs when students do something to the facts and the facts, in turn, do something to the students—by rendering experience more intelligible, by pointing the way to problems and making them felt or by helping the student increase his ability to control some part of his environment. A transaction also begins when the student discovers relationships among the facts and ideas. Students are then encouraged to discover the nature of these relationships and to consider alternative views.

Teaching the Structure of a Subject[7]

The structure of a discipline offers an important key to the educational task. In a more traditional sense, the structure of a discipline is the body of concepts which defines and delimits its subject matter and controls research or methods of inquiry into its component parts. For instance, the structure of chemistry consists of the laws and theories of the chemical properties of atoms and molecules. A fair understanding of chemistry can be obtained from studying certain of its general principles in relation to a selection of specific facts which illustrate these principles. Yet the concepts of chemistry as a discipline are themselves changing. A textbook of elementary chemistry used in 1920 is regarded today largely as an interesting historical phenomenon.

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[7] This material is based on: Joseph J. Schwab. "Education and the Structure of the Disciplines." Unpublished paper prepared for the NEA Project on Instruction. September 1961. 67 p.

The term ***structure*** is also used more loosely to refer to a set of general concepts which serve to organize knowledge in a given area. For instance, the concept of division of labor gives structure to some of the facts of economics in a primitive society or in a modern local community. Again, the family and social class are structural concepts in sociology, and the concept of Western civilization is a part of the structure of history.

Currently, the field of mathematics seems to offer the most promising examples of teaching the structure of a discipline to youngsters, particularly in terms of changes in theory as to what and how much children can learn at an early age.

Methods of Inquiry and Styles of Thinking

Another aspect of structure in a field of knowledge is its methods of inquiry. Each discipline has its own methods of inquiry and, for some learnings, should be taught differently. Learning by the "discovery method" in physics is different from learning by studying the relationship between numbers in algebra. History has still other methods of inquiry. Each subject needs to be taught by its own methods.

In addition to using structure as the basis for selection and organization of content, the scholars also try to teach what they call the styles of thinking particularly adapted to a subject. Once these intellectual techniques have been mastered for familiar situations, they can be transferred to new and unfamilar, yet related, situations.

Such general behaviors as the following may be learned in school: seeing, observing, listening, feeling, touching—in art and music; reasoning and feeling expressed in words and other symbols—in language arts and philosophy; formulating and testing hypotheses about the physical and social world—in science and social studies; empathizing or taking the role of a person of another culture or personality—in anthropology, social studies and psychology.

Children, of course, are limited in their ability to learn styles of thinking of scholars and specialists, just as they are limited by the levels of complexity of the subject field. Specialization in particular subject areas is not the primary task of the schools, nor can the schools provide youth with a full and balanced repertoire of habits or of styles of thinking as powerful as those possessed by individual specialists in their own fields. With these limitations in mind, however, the public school curriculum can set the stage for important and useful learning as students progress.

Developing understanding of generalizations, rules and styles of thought in the elementary and secondary school curriculum requires the talents of the teacher and curriculum worker as much as those of specialists in the academic disciplines. This endeavor imposes a great responsibility on the teacher and supervisor to keep current with the frontiers of knowledge, even though the general principles best learned by pupils may be broader and simpler than those of help to specialists.

Need for Direct Experience

Direct experience includes the firsthand encounter of children with life both in and out of school. Emphasis on structure can be a mixed blessing if it promotes too much talking about the subject and too little doing or feeling. Under some circumstances and for some students, a vital short story may be meaningful if they read it for themselves, without analyzing structure or discussing characters. For other students, a more meaningful experience may be gained by having the story read aloud. Under some circumstances, such direct reading and hearing should be followed by analysis.

One experimental approach to the teaching of mathematics to elementary school pupils concentrates on helping children develop the meaning of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and other operations with numbers and geometrical forms before they learn words describing those operations. This method encourages an intuitive preverbal understanding of the fundamentals of mathematics and fortifies the child's confidence in his ability to understand the subject.

Importance of Facts and Skills

Academic scholars have been selecting materials from their disciplines in order to teach the structure of each area, including the concepts and the methods of inquiry. There are, however, other important purposes which should be served. Facts relating to problems of personal and social living must be taught. To grasp the meaning of a principle requires working with selected specific facts. Facts which, in concert with the principles of a discipline give it life, must be learned. Facts learned in relationship to significant ideas are not necessarily dull. There does exist a place for drill in the acquisition of skills such as the three R's. Though in the past many schools have overstressed drill at the expense of understanding, the continuing need for drill and repetition for learning of some basic information is clear. Perhaps the developing use of teaching machines and programed texts will make this aspect of teaching and learning more effective in the future.

Values and Objectives

In a very real sense the only intelligent and practical answers to significant educational questions are those based upon data that are pertinent and accurate and upon values that are clear and compelling. Teaching, unlike an academic subject, is a purposeful human enterprise with ends that are consciously willed. The task of the supervisor or curriculum director is to understand ever more comprehensively the ends and means of his profession. The importance of clear objectives is emphasized by two recommendations of the NEA Project on Instruction. One recommendation echoes what has already been said earlier here: The aims of education should serve as a guide for making decisions about curricular organization as well as about all other aspects of the instructional program.

The other recommendation is even more specific with regard to objectives. It suggests that the objectives of the school, with a clear statement of priorities, should give direction to all curriculum planning. This applies to adding content, eliminating content or changing the emphasis on various topics and fields of study.

The following statements of value assumptions basic to decision making are suggested as appropriate guides or criteria for assessing present practices and/or directing future improvement of the schools:

Respect for the worth and dignity of every individual
Equality of opportunity for all children
Encouragement of variability
Faith in man's ability to make rational decisions
Shared responsibility for the common good
Respect for moral and spiritual values and ethical standards of conduct.

The NEA Project on Instruction also indicated the following priorities among educational objectives:

Learning how to learn
Using rational processes
Building competence in basic skills
Developing intellectual and vocational competence
Exploring values in new experience
Understanding concepts and generalizations.

Above all, the school must help the pupil to be "on his own" in school and outside, to learn "under his own steam," and to have an abiding interest in doing so.

One statement of value, translated operationally, might be described in capsule form by the following progression in educational emphases, as discussed by Gores, that underlies new concepts of space:

	From	To
1.	The group	The individual
2.	Memory	Inquiry
3.	Spiritless climate	Zest for learning
4.	The graded school	The nongraded school
5.	Self-contained classroom	Self-contained school
6.	Scheduled classes	Appointments and independent learning
7.	Teacher as general practitioner	Teacher as clinical specialist (member of team)
8.	School building use geared to an agrarian society—nine-month year—limited to children	School building use reflecting urban society—twelve-month year—available to all age groups
9.	Classrooms that are like kitchens	Classrooms that are like libraries, living rooms
10.	Boxes and egg crates	Clusters and zones of space
11.	Teaching as telling	Teaching as guiding
12.	A teaching schedule of 30 hours a week with children in class and 15 hours for planning and correcting	A schedule of 15 hours a week with children in class and 30 hours for research, planning, and development.[8]

This rather terse but to-the-point outline is, of course, only an outline. It is not meant to indicate a belief that shifts in organization—or shifts of any kind, for that matter—automatically improve the quality of education. This writer is convinced, however, that a reluctance to move, to try new ways of doing things—even if they turn out to be wrong ways—does diminish the chances for excellence in our schools.

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[8] Harold B. Gores. "The Big Change." An address delivered at the 43rd Annual Convention of the New York State School Boards Association, December 1962.

Kinds of Decisions

We do not have, and will likely never have or want, a uniform national agreement on the goals of education. We will continue to develop our aims and programs from a variety of sources and through the decisions of many people. Whether or not we progress or we drift in confusion depends, however, on the quality of these decisions. Before good decisions can be made, the right questions must be asked—the fundamental questions, which affect everyone.

The National Education Association's Project on Instruction[9] was one attempt to identify some significant areas of concern, to select from these areas the ones on which the Project should concentrate and then raise the right questions about these selected areas.

Twelve areas of educational concern were identified—matters about which decisions need to be made—and a cluster of questions about them was formulated. The decision areas identified related to decision making; research, experimentation, innovation; educating all children and youth; establishing priorities for the school; dealing with national problems related to youth; teaching about controversial issues; a balanced program; selecting content; organizing content; organizing the curriculum; organizing the school and the classroom and materials, technology, space.

Two examples of the kinds of questions asked in each decision area are cited here—for priorities and school organization: What are the distinctive responsibilities of the school in contrast to those that properly belong to the family, the church, industry and various youth-serving agencies? What responsibilities should the school share with other institutions and agencies? What, then, should be included in the school program? What should be excluded from it? How should the school and the classroom be organized to make the most effective use of the time and talents of students and teachers?

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[9] NEA Project on Instruction: The report consists of the following:

Schools for the Sixties. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963. 146 p. All other publications listed below are published by the National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Education in a Changing Society. 166 p.
Deciding What To Teach. 264 p.
Planning and Organizing for Teaching. 190 p.

Auxiliary Publications:

The Scholars Look at the Schools: A Report of the Disciplines Seminar. 64 p.

The Principals Look at the Schools: A Status Study of Selected Instructional Practices. 76 p.

Current Curriculum Studies in Academic Subjects. Dorothy M. Fraser. 102 p.

From Bookshelves to Action: A Guide to Using the Recommendations of the NEA Project on Instruction. 32 p.

Two filmstrips: *Deciding What To Teach* and *Planning and Organizing for Teaching*.

The 12 questions and 33 recommendations of the NEA Project on Instruction are outlined and summarized in the official Project report[10] which consists of four volumes and three auxiliary publications. The Center for the Study of Instruction has published one volume and two filmstrips.

The legal responsibility for curricular decisions, as for most matters affecting the public schools, can readily be described. It is more difficult, however, to identify and evaluate the effect of forces that influence, directly or indirectly, the individuals who hold the legal responsibility. Yet, a realistic picture of current patterns of decision making is needed to guide the supervisor and the curriculum director in a climate of change.

Who should make curricular decisions in the public schools today? We need to distinguish between what *has been* the traditional picture, what *is* the actual practice of curricular decisions and what *should be* the practice in the 1960's and the 1970's.

A suitable resolution cannot be found by treating the issue as an all-or-none choice. The question is not one of local *or* state *or* national control; rather it concerns the part that education authorities at each governmental level can most effectively take in the decision-making process and the role that professional groups and other nationally oriented nongovernmental groups can take in deciding what the schools should teach and how they should be organized. The goal is to improve the program of instruction for young people by drawing on all our resources, and this is best accomplished through a partnership of all who are involved. The questions then become: "*Who* should make *what* decisions?" "Where does the curriculum director fit in the total picture?"

The National Committee for the Project on Instruction has made five recommendations about decision making. These are referred to here not as an attempt to inform curriculum specialists as to the legal technicalities of educational responsibility, which would be presumptuous, but rather to illustrate what one group believed were points to be emphasized at each of several different levels of decision making. These points will surely have relevance for supervisors and curriculum directors as they reflect on their own local situations.

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[10] The curriculum leader will need to look for some guidelines relative to the *process* of achieving a given decision as well as for dealing with the content of decisions, which is the primary focus of this chapter.

Accepting the fact that local school boards are the legal instruments through which the state fulfills its responsibility for education, the Committee stressed the distinction between lay control of school policies determined by the board of education and implementation of these policies by the professional staff under the leadership of the local superintendent. The Committee affirmed the freedom and the authority of local school faculties to make decisions about what to teach—within state and local requirements—and how to teach, with the responsibility for final decisions regarding instruction devolving on the teacher in the classroom.

State education authorities have a responsibility for setting standards for instruction and providing adequate resources for their achievement along with the obligation to provide dynamic leadership for curriculum development, experimentation and innovation. The Committee specifically differentiated between the state legislature's ideal role in setting forth general goals for the schools, providing adequate financial support, and delegating broad powers of implementation to state and local education authorities and the all-too-often actual practice of prescribing curriculum content or requiring specific courses. The Committee strongly recommended a shift in federal support from aid to special projects toward general financial assistance for the improvement of public education, as well as an expanded role in stimulating experimentation and innovation in the school.

When To Teach What

Earlier in this chapter we cited 12 questions that need to be answered. Let us take three of them—when to teach what, organizing the school and the classroom, and establishing priorities—and see how data and values can be used in the quest for answers.

The writer continues to turn his attention, as we all do, to the work in which he has been immersed the past several years. The question, "When to teach what?" was treated in the following way by the National Committee of the NEA Project on Instruction:

The fact that very young children *can* learn relatively difficult aspects of science, mathematics and other subjects is at best an incomplete answer to the question of whether they *should* learn these aspects at this particular stage of their development. Decisions about *when to teach what* should be based on both the learner's ability to understand and the relative importance of alternative ways of using the learner's time at any given point in his school experience.

The current pressure to push subjects further down in the curriculum deserves thoughtful attention from parents and educators. The sources of pressure should be understood and the validity and relevance of the reasons given for downward or earlier placement should be examined. The major reasons given in support of pushing subject matter lower in the curriculum are these:

1. Children's ability to learn difficult content at an early age has been underestimated. It is possible for young children to learn aspects of subjects once thought appropriate only for later study.
2. There is much to be learned and new knowledge is being discovered every day. One way to cope with this rapidly increasing body of knowledge is to teach more sooner.
3. The society in which today's children will be adults will require high-level skills from its citizens. Children who have an early start in such subjects as science and mathematics will probably be the ones who will get ahead more rapidly.

Before World War II, the theory was generally accepted that children's minds developed from one stage to another and that certain concepts could not be learned until the mind had developed biologically to the necessary level of complexity. For example, a child was not ready to learn to read until age six, to learn ancient history until ages 11 or 12, or to learn algebra until the age of 14.

Recent research, however, has changed this view. The evidence indicates that children are capable of learning simplified aspects of any subject at almost any age. What they can understand at any stage in their development depends heavily on how it is explained and on what their background has been.

These findings suggest that less reliance should be placed on estimates of biological maturation and greater emphasis should be placed on active stimulation of learning.

It is important to have the best evidence that can be collected about the influence of age or maturity level of the student upon success in learning particular skills and knowledge. It is equally important to look at this evidence objectively. An unsupported prejudice in favor of traditional placement of subject matter should not be allowed to block the view. If seven-year-old children can learn aspects of physics and mathematics, the curriculum planner needs to know this and take it into account. Yet decisions about when to teach what must rest in part upon value judgments about the best use of the learner's time. There is no logical progression from "Seven-year-olds *can* learn aspects of physics" to "Therefore, seven-year-old children *should* learn aspects of physics."

The fact that children can learn a great variety of things at an early age increases the alternatives that are available and complicates the problem of making choices. Yet choices must be made; there is not enough time to teach everything that can be learned. In making decisions about when to teach what, curriculum planners and teachers need to consider carefully such questions as the following:

What are the reasons for the present placement of subject matter? Are they valid?

What are the criteria for determining whether or not it is best to introduce a seven-year-old to a study of physics or geometry? What other learnings may be sacrificed if the new material is introduced?

Does the early introduction result in more efficient learning later? If study were delayed for two or four or six years, would the learner, because of greater maturity, progress just as rapidly toward mastery as would the student who had the early introduction to the subject? Is there a difference from one area of study to another? For example, in terms of effect on later learning, is it more important to introduce foreign languages early than it is to introduce algebra in the early school years? Is there evidence on this point?

In making decisions about placement of content, teachers and curriculum planners need to consider the great differences among individuals and the importance of flexibility in instructional programs. The extent of such consideration will be reflected in the decisions. For example, the conclusion that "We should not teach geometry to *any* seven-year-olds" is quite different from "We should not teach geometry to *all* seven-year-olds." Realistically, the question is not just *when* to teach *what;* the question is *when* to teach *what* to *whom.*

Organization of the School and the Classroom

How should the school and the classroom be organized to make the most effective use of the time and talents of students and teachers?

The tasks of planning and organizing for teaching are complex and demanding. This is a fact, yet its truth is not always recognized, even by some members of the teaching profession. From those who do not recognize the complexity of the tasks come superficial approaches, naive proposals. From those who recognize both the difficulty and the importance of the tasks must come careful study, creative proposals and promising innovations. Current educational innovations can be classified as follows: (a) practices which are directed to fuller and more effective utilization of human talent; (b) practices which are directed to fuller and more effective utilization of time; and (c) practices which are directed to a fuller and more effective utilization of technology.

The basic data for school and classroom organization relate to the stubborn fact of individual differences. The guiding principle underlying most of our recommendations was: "Human variability demands alternatives."

Suggestions for supervisors or curriculum directors about five organizational issues are the following:

1. The vertical organization of the school should provide for the continuous, unbroken, upward progression of all learners, with due recognition of the wide variability among them in every aspect of their development. The school organization should, therefore, provide for differentiated rates and means of progression toward achievement of educational goals. Nongrading and multigrading are promising alternatives to the traditional graded school and should receive careful consideration.

2. Since grouping in terms of ability and/or achievement does little to reduce the overall range of pupil variability with which teachers must deal, this device is not recommended as a general practice. However, selective grouping and regrouping by achievement sometimes are useful.

3. The horizontal organization of the school should permit flexibility in assigning pupils to instructional groups that may range in size from one pupil to as many as a hundred or more. Well-planned cooperative efforts among teachers—efforts such as team teaching—should be encouraged and tested.

4. School organization should be such that it provides opportunity for each student to have a close counseling relationship with competent teachers who know him well. Various forms of organization should be explored. At whatever point specialized personnel are brought into the instructional program, their work should be coordinated with and related to the total program.

5. When the classroom is the unit of organization, teachers should organize learners frequently into smaller groups of varying types and sizes, depending on educational purposes to be served at a given time.

Establishing Priorities

The question, "What shall the schools teach?" and its counterpart, "What shall the schools *not* teach?" constitute a central issue in attempts to appraise American education. Stated in behavioral terms, the question then becomes, "What should the graduate be able to do that he could not do if he had not gone to school?"

At a general level, there is agreement. Lay citizens and educators alike agree that the school has a major responsibility for preparing young people to live in today's society. They agree that the school has a responsibility for preparing young people to live with change and contribute to constructive change. At a more specific level, they agree that the student should read, write, speak, compute and think more effectively than he would had he not gone to school.

Great differences of opinion appear, however, when educators and other citizens, together or separately, approach the more complex questions that follow:

What knowledge, values and skills do children and youth in our culture need to learn?

Which of these goals can best be achieved by the school?

What knowledge, skills and values can best be taught by the home, the church and other social institutions?

Which learnings require the joint efforts of the school and other agencies?

Thoughtful consideration of these questions is needed to determine priorities for the schools—to make certain, for example, that reading is identified as more important than cheerleading. Those responsible for deciding what to teach can and should apply concrete standards. Suppose, for example, that there are pressures for adding French, German or Norwegian to the curriculum of the third grade, or for pushing physics and geometry down into the first grade. The problem might be approached in three ways.

First, assume the school should do what the current pressure indicates and should add these subjects. The result is the "creeping" curriculum: "Never have so many learned so little about so much."

A second way to approach this problem is to say, "Fine! We will add these subjects if you will tell us what subjects to remove from the curriculum."

A third approach to this problem of what the school ought properly to provide requires that educators and the public apply suitable criteria. Ralph W. Tyler suggests the following questions, with reference to an area of learning proposed for inclusion in the instructional program:

1. Is it learning that is based substantially upon bodies of organized knowledge, such as the arts and sciences?

2. Is it learning of complex and difficult things that requires organization of experience and distribution of practice over long periods of time?

3. Is it learning in which the essential factors must be brought specially

to the attention of the learner? For example, concepts that explain the growth of plants are not obvious to an observer of plants.

4. Is it an experience that cannot be provided directly in the ordinary activities of daily living?

5. Is it learning that requires a more structured experience than is usually available in life outside the schools?

6. Is it learning that requires reexamination and interpretation of experience? [11]

Each supervisor or curriculum director needs to help the faculty develop its own set of criteria. The one cited does not, for example, give sufficient attention to aesthetic, psychomotor or vocational experiences. As each supervisor or curriculum director gives leadership to the development of a statement of educational priorities, the following questions need to be answered:

Are the staff and the public clear about the school's place in the order of things?

Has the public, through the local school board, determined the broad aims of the school?

Has the professional staff translated these aims into behavioral objectives that indicate priorities?

Are the unique nature of each individual and the diversified nature of American life considered when priorities are listed?

In summary, for the general nature and directions of education—for questions concerning "what to teach," one looks to values, objectives, social forces and trends, and the disciplines for guidance. For questions concerning "how" and "when," one turns to the psychology of learning and human growth and development. The organized fields of knowledge serve as key sources of data for the "how" and "when" dimensions.

The over-riding principle for educators is that the application of all of these guidelines is changing, even as one is arriving at decisions on issues at any given period. Only by a continuing quest for knowledge and an awareness of all the shifts and changes that occur in the determining conditions of education can its leaders hope to be responsive to the needs of the individual and of society. Rules-of-thumb and opinions, which too often guide decision making, must be replaced by basic concepts with which to think about the problem. By no better way can supervisors or curriculum directors become acquainted with the fact of change, the value of analyzing the prob-

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[11] Ralph W. Tyler. "Emphasize Tasks Appropriate for the Schools." *Phi Delta Kappan* 40: 73-74; November 1958.

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lems involved in change and the positive response to change than through cooperative planning, the artistic application and adaptation of principles, and a willingness to meet new challenges. By no better way can they earn their right to be leaders in their chosen field.

Montaigne's advice still gives us "something to go by" as we make our decisions:

> Whoever goes in search of anything must reach this point: either to say that he has found it, or that it is not to be found, or that he is still upon the quest.[12]

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[12] "Apology for Raimonde de Sebonde." *The Essays of Michel de Montaigne.* Translated by Charles Cotton. Edited by W. Carey Hazlett. London: George Bell and Sons, York Street, Covent Garden, 1892.

Chapter Three

The Emerging Role of the Curriculum Leader

Chester D. Babcock

SCHOOL people today, in the face of the ever-changing demands made upon them, are finding it increasingly necessary to turn to the curriculum specialist. This specialist, as is pointed out elsewhere, is a relative newcomer to the leadership team in many school systems. His role as yet has not been clearly defined. His relationships with general administration, with the individual building principal and with the teaching corps as a whole are still in a state of confusion in many school systems.

Change Important to Supervisor and Curriculum Specialist

The need for defining the role of the curriculum specialist, regardless of his title, in the functional organization of the school system is imperative. This task must be faced squarely if the schools are to meet their responsibility of providing the best possible educational opportunities for all children and youth.

Let us examine the position in which we find ourselves in relation to the broad field of supervision and curriculum development. As noted by Van Til and Sand, schools, reflecting the characteristics of the culture of which they are a part, are in a period of rapid change. This is the result of a number of factors, many of which are closely interrelated.

Presented in some detail in Chapters One and Two, several factors important to the role of the supervisor will be reviewed only briefly here. First of these factors is that school people are aware of the tremendous increase in knowledge—the new discoveries which are being made at an ever more rapidly accelerating rate. Man's storehouse of knowledge is growing, faster and faster. Today no educational program can be devised which will encompass all knowledge. Of increasing importance is the task of selecting that knowledge "which is of most worth," recognizing that the "truths" of today may well be only a part of the folklore of tomorrow. Here curricular decisions are of prime importance in determining the quality of the educational program.

A second factor relating to the role of the supervisor or curriculum specialist is the changing character of the pupils in today's schools. In spite of popular opinion created probably by our concern about the "dropouts," an ever-increasing percentage of children entering kindergarten or first grade remain to graduate from high school. As a result, we have with us today most of the slow-learners; the "reluctant" learners who have no discernible motivation; the children with emotional and social problems; the children and youth whose ceiling of aspiration is limited by living in a culturally disadvantaged area; and the physically and mentally handicapped, who until relatively recently would not have been regarded as part of the school's responsibility.

A third factor relating to the role of the supervisor or curriculum specialist results from changing concepts of teacher education. Once upon a time—and not too long ago—an individual was provided a curriculum at the undergraduate level which enabled him to acquire certain knowledge about a subject matter and to develop, or at least learn about, some basic pedagogical skills. That program completed, he received a teaching certificate and entered a career in education. A summer session or two, a couple of years of so-called "successful teaching experience," and in many states the teacher could be certified for life.

The requirements of our evolving culture and the impact of new knowledge have changed all this. More and more it is being recognized that teacher education is a lifelong process, not completed with the granting of a certificate. In-service education by local school districts is essential if the teaching corps is to keep abreast of advances in knowledge—to keep pace not only with new knowledge in the subject fields, but also with new discoveries in the broad areas of the learning and teaching theories.

It is the curriculum specialists who must play major roles in a school district's in-service education program. Both the generalist and the subject-area specialist have important parts to play, each bringing his specialized skills and knowledge to bear on the upgrading of the professional competence of the total staff and corps.

A fourth factor which bears directly on the role of the curriculum specialist in decision making is the current introduction of myriad proposals for curriculum change and for new organizational patterns in the schools. Clearly recognized is the fact that these proposals grow out of the explosion of knowledge; the increased public interest in education; the research (and rationale) about teaching and learning; advances in the broad field of instructional technology; a concern about the relationship of the task of education and the achievement of national goals; and a host of others with which all are familiar.

Criteria Needed for Evaluation of Change

These varied proposals have had great impact upon public education. Hardly a school system in our nation has been untouched by innovation of one type or another. There are several obvious reasons for this. First, the enactment by Congress of the National Defense Education Act has made funds available for research and for the implementation of programs in certain selected fields deemed essential to the national interest. Second, the establishment of private foundations, financed by industry and business, has opened to the schools new sources of income for subsidization of programs which could not be supported from normal revenue sources. Third, a trend toward higher entrance requirements for admission to colleges and universities has resulted in reexamination of high school graduation requirements. This trend has also brought about a number of proposals resulting in much earlier departmentalization of the curriculum.

We have noted a newly aroused interest in the common school program on the part of scholars in the disciplines. This has led to an increasing concern about subject content at both elementary and secondary school levels with a wide variety of proposals being made. Much has been said about these—in some cases to the point of oversimplifying the complex issues involved.

The work being done in institutes such as the Center for Cognitive

Studies at Harvard and the Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences at Stanford has provided data significant to an understanding of the teaching-learning process. This work has also served to focus attention on the need for reexamination of traditional practices and procedures.

The financial problems confronted by many school districts in the face of ever-increasing enrollments, have resulted in public pressure to utilize television, teaching machines and programed learning, team teaching, etc., as possible means of reducing the per-pupil cost of public education.

Curricular Decisions from Many Levels

The age of tension and conflict in which we live and the recurrent international crises which confront us have created a deep sense of national insecurity. The success of the Russians in the exploration of outer space came as a shock to our national pride. Faced with a seeming crisis, people turned to education—some confidently, some critically, yet all believing strongly that our educational institutions hold the key to the achievement of our national goals. A result of this feeling was increased public pressure on the schools to experiment and to innovate. In some instances, perhaps, means and ends have become confused, and we have had change solely for the sake of change.

As a result of this and other factors, change and innovation today characterize most public school systems. Each of the changes involves curricular decision making. Someone or some group within a school system must set up the criteria on the basis of which the various curricular proposals can be evaluated. Such evaluation is not a simple process. It lacks simplicity because:

First, the pressures, originating sometimes in the community and sometimes from sponsoring organizations, make objective analysis difficult.

Second, it is difficult to evaluate curricular proposals when we have, as yet, no real data from longitudinal studies indicating the long-term effects of these proposals on children.

Third, someone or some group must look at the various proposals in their relationship to one another and to the total educational experience of the student.

Fourth, and this is of paramount importance, each of the proposals must be critically examined in terms of the specific aims of education in both the cognitive and affective domains.

We must recognize that curricular decisions are now actually being made at many levels. In some instances these decisions are being made at the national level. The rules and regulations established by the U.S. Office of Education under the provisions of the National Defense Education Act passed by Congress in 1958 prescribe in a very real sense several aspects of the local school district curriculum. Schools are free to accept or to reject the financial aid, yet if such aid is accepted, then certain curricular decisions made in the U.S. Office of Education must be accepted. The same is true if a school accepts federal financial assistance in the field of vocational education.

In all states, some curricular decisions are made at the state level. These decisions are sometimes made by the legislative bodies. For example, nearly all states have enacted statutes requiring that American history and government be taught in all elementary and secondary schools. Other curricular decisions are made in the office of the state superintendent or commissioner of education acting under authority delegated by the legislative body or by the state board of education. These decisions most frequently deal with such areas as the adoption of books and other instructional media, graduation requirements, elementary and secondary accreditation, teacher certification and administrative credentials. In each instance, the decisions made have a direct bearing upon the instructional program and the curriculum.

In many states, curricular decisions are also made at the county level. This is generally a control of lessening importance except in those states where the schools outside metropolitan centers are organized as a county unit. In these cases, the schools of the county become a single school district and then operate in terms of curricular decision making as would any other large school system.

Most curricular decisions are made at the school-district level, operating within the limits set by national, state and county regulations and, of equal importance, within the limits set by the educational expectations and aspirations of the local communities.

Curricular decisions are also made at the building level by the principal, who is the instructional leader for the unit.

Curricular decisions are made by the individual classroom teacher. Each day the teacher plans his program and every minute as he works with pupils, individually and as a group, he makes curricular decisions —decisions relative to what is to be taught and how it is to be taught.

Finally, we recognize that curricular decisions are being made, increasingly, by groups and individuals outside the formal national, state, county, township or local structure of public education. Such groups and individuals represent a broad range of interests. Generally speaking, they operate with the best of intent. All are genuinely concerned with providing our nation's young people with the best possible education. However, their opinions concerning what is the best possible education vary greatly. These individuals and groups fall roughly into some six categories.

Curricular Decisions from Outside the Formal Structure

Great pressures have been, and are still being exerted on curricular decisions by a number of individuals not associated directly with the educational structure or with any organized group. Outstanding in this regard is James B. Conant. His findings, widely publicized both in the professional and popular press, have probably had as great an impact on American education as those of any single person in contemporary education. Influential in a negative sense are writings by Vice-Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, who has voiced his belief that our educational system is almost totally inadequate.

In recent years, private foundations have played an increasingly important part in curricular decisions. These privately endowed foundations, contrary to the common public belief, are not new as a force in American education. The Rockefeller Foundation was chartered in 1913, and in the fifty years since it was endowed, it has provided grants totaling well over a half-billion dollars. These grants have supported projects in medical education, public health, agricultural education and extensive studies in the social sciences and in the humanities.

The Carnegie Foundation, actually a complex of trusts, institutes and commissions, has played an important role in public as well as private education. The two best known in these fields are the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, incorporated in 1906, and the Carnegie Corporation of New York, established in 1911. Both are concerned primarily with higher education. In cooperation with the Ford Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation helps maintain the National Merit Scholarship Corporation which is described as "the largest college scholarship program in the history of American education." Grants totaling approximately a half-billion dollars have been made to institutions of higher education to support basic research and experimentation in better preparation of teachers, new teaching methods and procedures, and to "encourage, uphold and dignify the profession of the teacher and the cause of higher education."

The Ford Foundation, dating back to 1936, today probably plays the most spectacular role in American education of any of the privately endowed, philanthropic corporations. Through grants, this foundation has been extensively involved in promoting use of educational television, in school building planning, in adult education, in economic and conservation education, in intercultural education, in college scholarship programs and in a wide range of related educational programs. With current assets totaling approximately a half-billion dollars, this is the largest private trust in the world today.

A third element having a profound influence on curricular decision making in contemporary education is college and university personnel, representing the academic disciplines, who have become, in effect, the writers of the "new curricula." In mathematics, in the physical and biological sciences, in the foreign languages, and increasingly in the social sciences and the English language arts, the academic scholars are providing the curriculum content. Endowed by private foundations or by governmental institutions such as the National Science Foundation, these scholars have more funds at their disposal for curriculum studies than curriculum workers in the public schools have ever had. At the same time, there seems to have developed on the part of the scholars a recognition that they have a responsibility to assist in the development of the total educational program rather than to devote their attention solely to the relatively small segment of education which falls within the scope of higher learning.

Paul Hanna, writing in the *National Elementary Principal*, and commenting on the social studies program, summarized this point of view in this way: "The community of scholars . . . shares with the teaching profession the responsibility of stating our goals and designing content. These scholars have as their special contribution the discovery of their disciplines. . . . No school can possibly design an adequate . . . program without the intimate and continuous partnership of the professional school teacher and of the academic scholar." [1] As a result of this new interest on the part of the scholars, we find that, in a sense, curricular leadership and a large area of curricular decision making, particularly with reference to content, have moved from the public schools to the college campus.

Professional education organizations are also playing an increasingly important part in curriculum development processes. The Project on Instruction of the National Education Association takes positions in its publications on most of the pressing current curricular problems. The new English Composition Project, launching a five-year study, will undoubtedly have a profound influence on language arts teaching in the schools. Almost all of the departments of the NEA are in the midst of curriculum studies of one kind or another. Current projects of the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, to name only a few, all have definite curricular implications. Independent organizations, such as the American Council of Learned Societies, the National Council of Teachers of English and the Modern Language Association, are playing equally important roles.

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[1] Paul R. Hanna. "Mounting a National Effort in the Social Studies." *National Elementary School Principal* 42 (6): 46; May 1963.

Governmental groups such as the National Science Foundation are also making curricular decisions which affect the schools. The National Science Foundation, created by an Act of Congress in 1950, has spent to date approximately 200 million dollars on elementary and secondary school mathematics and science programs. About three-fourths of the money has been spent on in-service education of teachers to enable them to handle more effectively the content and methods of the new curricula in these two fields. This means, in effect, that a large range of decisions concerning content, methods and in-service education in mathematics and science are no longer being made at the local level.

Finally, curricular decisions are being made every day by the textbook publishers and media producers. This is not a new influence in American education. In many schools the selection of content within a given course has been largely determined by the textbook chosen for that course. Even where skillful and competent teachers attempted to give greater breadth and depth to a course, the textbook still provided the curricular structure. Today many textbook and media companies are producing their versions of the new programs being developed by the groups and individuals previously discussed.

Need for New Effort To Define Roles

We find ourselves, then, considering the role of the supervisor in the areas of curricular decision making and curricular organization in situations with almost endless variables. Yet factors within the educational complex, such as the discovery of new knowledge, the changing character of the school population, the evolving concepts of teacher education, the introduction of a large number of innovations relating to content, methods and organizational patterns, make it imperative that general agreements be reached with reference to the role of the curriculum supervisor or specialist. The necessity for reaching some common understandings concerning this role is emphasized by the fact that each of the changes and trends involves curricular decision making. Such decision making, if it is to be constructive, must be accomplished on the basis of sound criteria, objectively applied. At present these important curricular decisions are being made in a variety of ways, by various people, and at different levels in the educational structure.

As we consider the matter of defining the role of the curriculum supervisor or curriculum director, we immediately encounter the problem of terminology. No well developed taxonomy exists in this area to assist us. The individual who is assigned the broad responsibility of leadership in the curriculum program is identified by many titles. He may be called director or supervisor of curriculum and/or instruction; he may be known as curriculum consultant; he may be designated as an assistant, or associate or deputy superintendent in charge of curriculum and instruction, or a deputy superintendent in charge of curriculum and research. In some instances, where the elementary and secondary programs are administered as more or less distinct units, he may have the general title, "director of elementary education," or "director of secondary education." In large school systems, there may be several supervisors of curriculum and instruction, with a division of labor built around special areas of competence or experience. The number of people involved is not significant because the basic principles of function still apply. The title is not, basically, important and is, generally, determined more by tradition than by any definitive analysis of function. It is unfortunate when the matter of title assumes, as it sometimes does, more importance than the development of clear-cut policies with regard to function in decision making and to the interdivisional relationships which to a large degree determine the effectiveness of the curriculum leader's role.

Some Controversial Assumptions

In considering the role of the curriculum leader, and we will identify him from this point on as the "supervisor of curriculum" or "curriculum supervisor," it is necessary to make some basic assumptions. These assumptions are in themselves controversial and ought to be subjected to critical analysis and discussion. Yet each has a direct bearing on the role of the curriculum supervisor in decision making and on his place in the organizational structure of the school system, regardless of its size.

1. Curriculum development and the instructional program are inseparable. Basic in curriculum development are the teaching-learning

opportunities which are provided in the classroom. Stated simply, the development of a "course of study" is not something done separately and apart by a "curriculum specialist" who then transmits it to the schools where it is implemented by "instructional specialists." To separate these functions violates the basic concept that the curriculum consists of all the learning opportunities which are provided by the schools. Such separation fails to recognize that the process of *curriculum development* involves a wide range of activities from a clarification of educational goals and objectives to the in-service education of teachers.

2. The supervision of curriculum development and of the instructional program in the classroom is fundamentally a *service* rather than an *administrative* function. This is important. We have long recognized that the supervision of instruction in the classroom should be removed as far as possible from the "authority" role. It should be removed as far as possible from the "line-staff" relationship.

3. The *immediate* responsibility for the supervision of classroom instruction rests directly with the building principal. This statement may be, and all too often is misunderstood. We sometimes assume that "*responsibility* for supervision" means a "*duty* to supervise."

The distinction here is an important one. Realistically, the principal of a large high school carries a heavy administrative responsibility. He is the direct representative of the superintendent and school board in his district. He implements policies determined by the superintendent and the school board. Increasingly, the principal carries a major public relations responsibility, interpreting the school program to the community, and translating the community's educational hopes and aspirations to the superintendent and board. He is the "general manager" of what is probably the largest "plant" in his community. As such, the principal is the coordinator of a variety of educational activities. These include a wide array of pupil-personnel services, of student activities, of building maintenance, of requisitioning books, supplies, facilities, providing transportation, budgeting of funds allocated to the building and the fostering of a high morale within his teaching corps and staff. In short, he carries direct responsibility for providing "a good environment for learning." Only as the principal creates a building atmosphere in which the full potential of the teacher is released, can the teacher provide fully rewarding learning opportunities for pupils in the classroom.

Besides these duties, the principal carries responsibility for the supervision of instruction. It is here that the supervisors of curriculum and instruction perform a service function. They provide the resources available to the principal to enable him to meet this responsibility. Obviously he must have this assistance available, not only because he does not have sufficient time to perform the task, but also because few if any principals are adequately prepared to give teachers the kind of help they need in all curricular areas. To assume competence in the content, materials and methods in all areas of our rapidly changing curriculum is completely unrealistic. In short, the principal's responsibility in the supervision of instruction is to marshal all the resources of the curriculum staff to improve the quality of the program in his school.

4. The *leadership* responsibility in curriculum development lies with the curriculum supervisor. This does not mean that the initiation of curriculum change is the exclusive prerogative of the curriculum supervisor. Provision must be made in any organizational structure for the initiation of change by any group—teachers, principals, central administrative and/or supervisory staff, the curriculum decision-making body or groups within the community. Curriculum change may also be, and sometimes is, initiated by county, state or federal agencies, by private foundations, or by institutions of higher education. The important thing is that the channels through which curriculum proposals pass be clearly defined.

This means that supervision and curriculum development are important specialties in their own right. Those who hold leadership responsibilities in these fields should not need to look upon their positions as promotional steps to a principalship or other administrative task. The roles of supervision and of administration are equally important to the processes of education.

The leadership responsibility which falls on the curriculum supervisor involves a variety of duties. These duties have been defined extensively in the literature. The following are typical statements of leadership:

Understanding the nature of the community, its resources and its needs
Defining the community's educational goals and objectives
Analyzing pupil needs, including the basic social functions for which they must be prepared
Developing criteria for the evaluation of curriculum proposals
Setting forth the design, scope and sequence of programs of study
Preparing pupil and teacher guides to facilitate the teaching-learning process
Developing resource units to promote depth and breadth in learning
Marshaling instructional media

Developing evaluative criteria and instruments
Promoting curriculum experimentation and research
Assisting in the implementation of the curriculum program
Providing in-service education for staff members
Reevaluating and revising content, methods and materials.

This, admittedly, is only a partial listing of duties. The list could be extended and each of the statements could be broken down into the many specific activities which each involves. These few statements serve, however, to illustrate the scope of the curriculum supervisor's leadership responsibility. In addition, the supervisor bears responsibility for involving both teachers and principals in all the processes of curriculum development.

5. Curriculum development and the supervision of instruction must be organized on a K-12 basis. Thirteen years of public education for all children and youth is the attainable goal for which we are striving. The day when the educational program can be segmented into parts has long since passed. There must be continuity from grade to grade and level to level. This is especially important as schools move increasingly into program innovation.

Each of the new curriculum proposals has implications for grade levels other than those specifically involved. For example, the proposals made by the Biological Science Curriculum Study, a secondary school program, has great significance for the elementary schools. The development of modern foreign language programs in the elementary schools requires a revision of the content in the secondary schools. Many similar examples could be cited. If we are to have the kind of articulation necessary for continuity of learning experiences, the organizational structure must be consistent with that pattern.

The preceding assumptions, if valid, suggest some generalizations on curricular organization and administrative structure.

Curricular Organization and Administrative Structure

In the administrative structure of the school district, regardless of its size, persons in the division or section involved with curriculum development and the supervision of instruction, occupy a service or "staff" position rather than an authority or "line" position in the administration of the schools.

The membership of the division of curriculum and instruction should consist of all central office personnel in the related service areas: general supervisors and consultants in both elementary and secondary schools; supervisors and consultants in the subject areas; in special education (programs for mentally, physically or emotionally handicapped, and programs for the talented or gifted); in guidance and counseling; and in the instructional media including libraries. The number of personnel will vary greatly according to size of the school district. In the very small school districts—and there are over 18,000 districts with a total elementary and secondary school enrollment under 300—responsibility for the areas listed may be centered in a single person. On the other hand, in the some 1050 school districts with enrollments of over 6000 which educate more than 50 percent of all children and youth, there may be several supervisors in each of the areas listed here.

It should be the responsibility of the division to provide leadership and make recommendations concerning curricular content, instructional methods and materials, educational facilities, and the in-service education of the staff. These responsibilities by implication dictate, also, a research function for curriculum personnel.

Curricular recommendations, regardless of their point of origin, should be channeled through the division of curriculum and instruction for study and research and for action recommendations. Curricular questions and recommendations which involve policy decisions should go to some type of representative curriculum council. The curriculum council should be composed of representatives of all elements of the educational institution. The number on the council will vary according to the size of the school system, but the same principles of composition would apply in both the very small and the very large district.

The first element of the educational structure which should be included in the curriculum council consists of representatives in the area of curriculum development and the supervision of instruction. These should include:

The General Supervisors, elementary and secondary. These are the people who are primarily concerned with looking at any curriculum proposal or instructional problem in its relation to the students' total educational experience.

The Subject Matter Supervisors. These are the specialists in the content, methods and materials of a particular discipline. They are concerned with the development of an articulated scope and sequence from kindergarten to grade 12 in a given subject matter field.

The Special Services Supervisors. These are the persons who work with such service areas as guidance and counseling and with programs for the physically, mentally or emotionally handicapped.

The Instructional Media Supervisors. These are the specialists in learning resources who provide the materials for teaching and learning in the classroom. As such they have a service relationship to other supervisors, to principals and to teachers.

The second element of the educational structure which should be represented on the curriculum council is the administration—the "line" authority: the *elementary, junior high* and *senior high school principals.* These administrators must evaluate any curriculum proposals made in terms of the needs of pupils in their districts in regard to the maintenance of a balanced program, and in terms of the practicability of their implementation in the various buildings. This latter would include such items as the availability of the required facilities and the necessary budget provisions.

A third element which should be represented in the curriculum council are the *teachers.* As someone has said, the only curriculum development or instructional improvement which takes place occurs when the teacher enters his classroom and closes the door. It is sometimes argued that since the committee structure within the curriculum division is composed largely of classroom teachers, this group is already represented through the division's representatives on the council. This assumption is not always valid. Those classroom teachers who are selected or who volunteer to serve on committees usually have some special interest or competence in the area or subject being studied. In this sense, these teachers serve as specialists rather than as representatives of the teaching personnel. Certainly the classroom teachers as a group should have the opportunity to express their points of view in the processes of decision making on problems of curriculum and instruction.

A fourth element of the educational institution which should be represented on the curriculum council is *the public* which supports the schools and for whose children's education the school is responsible. In this writer's view, this group is an important one whose opinions are needed in the process of curriculum decision making. The parents' feelings about the purposes of education, their hopes and ambitions for their children and their analyses of the educational needs of the community are important factors which deserve every consideration as the council arrives at decisions concerning the school program.

It is sometimes argued that the lay public is not qualified to enter into decision making on many problems of curriculum and instruction. Perhaps this is true. However, we must remember that the decisions made in the curriculum council are primarily *policy* decisions and are not basically concerned with the details of implementation.

For example, if the council is considering a recommendation that foreign languages be introduced in the elementary schools, the parents' points of view are needed along with those of the supervisors, the teachers and the principals. Yet when a decision is reached, and if it is decided that such a program should be inaugurated, the curriculum and instruction division has the responsibility for decisions concerning how the language is to be taught and what materials are to be used. The administrative staff members have the responsibility for implementing the program within their individual schools.

When decisions are reached in the curriculum council (and approved by the superintendent and the board of education), the responsibility for implementation rests upon both curriculum and administrative personnel, each taking the appropriate steps within his sphere of activity.

Generally, the administrative head of the division of curriculum and instruction serves as chairman of the curriculum council. As the head of a major division in the total administrative structure of the district, and as a member of the superintendent's administrative staff, he also serves on the superintendent's advisory council or cabinet.

In summary, a definition of the role of the curriculum supervisor is a task complicated by many variables. So complex are the settings within which curriculum workers operate that no definitive statement, applicable to all situations, is possible. The same generalization can be made with reference to the place of the curriculum supervisor in the administrative structure and framework of a school district.

Defining role and position with exactness for all districts may not be either necessary or desirable. Probably structure, like the curriculum itself, must be indigenous to the community.

However, in spite of the complexity of the problem, it is essential that the channels for curriculum change be cleared and the supervisor's role be clarified. In this we have no choice, subject as the schools are to an increasing variety of curriculum pressures and to an ever-growing diffusion of the curriculum decision-making function. We must examine critically the roles and functions, not only of the curriculum staff, but of the total administrative structure and the problems of interrelationships among the various parts. Finally, as specialists in the area of curriculum and instruction, we must make positive proposals for the establishment of organizational patterns which will release the full potential of all persons who are concerned with the educational processes.

Chapter Four

Securing Competent Instructional Leaders

Harold T. Shafer and
Gordon N. Mackenzie

THE NEED to make explicit the qualifications required for the competent execution of the roles described in Chapter Three and the need to spell out their implications for programs for both the preparation and the continued growth of supervisors and curriculum leaders are apparent and urgent. These needs, this present chapter attempts to meet. Some consideration of the role of professional organizations with reference to developing guidelines for the professionalizing of positions within their purview and some attention to developing guidelines for the preparing college and/or university and for school units at various levels seem in order.

Since there is much controversy with reference to these points and since a number of organized groups, presently, are devoting serious study and consideration to these problems, an attempt to delineate definitive guidelines here would be presumptuous. Questions can and should be raised in this chapter, however, and perhaps some directions can be pointed.

The continuing challenge for improvement of instruction and the need for an effective school organization, in large part if not entirely, have been accompanied by a rapid advance of specialization in educational staff positions. In fact, some instructional improvement programs now feature the use of a team of specialists. A recent statement supportive of the need for a corps of instructional workers was made by a joint committee of the American Association of School Administrators and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. This committee's report, entitled *Organizing for Improved Instruction*, states:

> The assumption that underlies this whole report is that classroom teachers and all staff members in a school system of whatever size need support and stimulation, their growth and competency and vision need nourishment and their awareness of responsibility for change needs sharpening. To us this posits a necessary role for resource people not identified as administrators. These people are assistant superintendents for instruction or for curriculum, curriculum workers, supervisors, researchers, instructional material workers and others who provide services designed to support and enrich the learning experiences of children.[1]

Some persons would maintain that today's teachers are four or five times better prepared than those of 30 years ago and, therefore, are not in need of specialized assistance. In terms of the number of years given to continuing growth, the present-day teacher is, no doubt, more competent and better prepared to conduct an effective program for children. Yet to conclude that teachers of the mid-twentieth century need no assistance or supervisory help ignores the fact that teaching assignments of today are much more complex and demand infinitely more by way of responsibility, skill and knowledge than did assignments of a former period.

Apparently there is need to clarify the setting in which administrators, teachers and curriculum leaders are now working—sometimes in accord, and at other times in conflict resulting in frustration. For this reason, several major education associations have recently initiated studies of the roles of various specialists and of an appropriate organization for instructional improvement. The need is imperative for professional groups at local, county, state, regional and national levels to be active in seeking answers to current as well as future problems of curriculum leadership and resource assistance to teachers. Close and continuing liaison with state and local education officers and agencies is, of course, essential.

Mainly through its Committee on the Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers, the Association for Supervision and

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[1] American Association of School Administrators and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Organizing for Improved Instruction.* Washington, D. C.: the Associations, 1963. p. 8.

Curriculum Development is attempting to formulate guidelines for upgrading the quality and increasing the supply of curriculum workers. Much of the identification of areas of concern and of the suggested solutions and policy statements contained in this chapter reflects the deliberations of this Committee and its predecessor, the Commission on the Improvement of Instructional Leadership.

The six target areas identified by this Commission for improving the quality of curriculum leadership provide the outline for this chapter:

Roles and responsibilities
Recruitment and selection
Programs of preparation
Accreditation of preparing institutions
Certification of curriculum leaders
Roles of the professional organizations.

Roles and Responsibilities

The curriculum leader, whether he is a general or subject supervisor, special services or instructional media supervisor, or director or assistant, associate or deputy superintendent in charge of instruction, is a relative newcomer to the leadership team in school systems. Many of the problems and influences bearing upon specific role assignments indicate an evolutionary process that needs to be recognized and understood. These problems and influences have been described in Chapter Three and will not be developed here except to call attention to several considerations basic to later sections of this chapter. For example, there appears to be a tendency toward specialization within the curriculum leader ranks. Is the day of the generalist passing? Or does the generalist have new and unique roles when compared to the special subject supervisor, the special services supervisor or the instructional media supervisor? Will curriculum research specialists become increasingly common? If so, how will they work and what kinds of research will they foster?

The major rationale for continued specialization rests in the expanding complexities of modern education. The AASA-ASCD joint booklet states the situation in this way:

> There is a growing body of specialists whose function it is to support and stimulate teaching and learning. They work at curriculum development, instructional improvement, professional growth, evaluation, and research. They include specialists in guidance, in psychology and child development, in problems of atypical children, in subject areas and special curriculums

for adults and the vocations, in health, in in-service growth programs, and in the whole range of instructional materials, media and media services. These persons we call resource people.

There is no formula for the right number and kinds of resources or resource people in a school system. Each community and each school system has its own needs and priorities. But if education is to be effective most of the resource functions must be performed somewhere in any system. They call for highly specialized competencies and continuous study which simply cannot be found or maintained in teachers, principals and superintendents who have their own expertness to achieve and hold. No one person could keep abreast of all the specialties.

Every board of education should have a plan for adding resources and resource people which takes into account state requirements and support, community needs and demands and, above all, the needs of the children in its care.[2]

School systems noted for their foresight and good practice in instructional improvement have faced many of the early questions as to the kinds and numbers of curriculum workers needed. However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to suggest a formula which all school systems could apply to these problems. Educational priorities and needs in a specific local situation will dictate the approach to local staffing and organization. However, the growth in specialization only complicates the problems of role clarification.

Obviously, clarity of role definition within any specific organization is important for the effective and efficient operation of that unit. Therefore, any school system characterized by clarity of role assignment, other factors being equal, is likely to have a considerable advantage.

However, clarity as to the function or responsibility of each of the various kinds of curriculum leaders as well as of the group as a whole is probably even more important, in several respects, than specific role assignments. First, the body of knowledge basic to a profession is a most significant determiner of the effectiveness of a profession as well as of the right to be designated as a profession. This basic knowledge stems more from function than from specific role assignments. Second, the functions of curriculum workers are probably a more revealing guide to the development of programs of preparation than are the diverse patterns of role assignment.[3] Third, many of the problems of certification can be solved only by relating certificates both to function and to preparation for those functions, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[3] Donald J. Leu and Herbert C. Rudman, editors. *Preparation Programs for School Administrators, Common and Specialized Learnings.* Seventh University Council for Educational Administration, Career Development Seminar. East Lansing, Michigan: College of Education, Michigan State University, 1963. See especially Chapter VIII.

Students of educational leadership give much thought to the complexity and controversy evident in the various roles now being performed by curriculum leaders. Some have suggested that a source of clarification lies in the development of an overarching theory of leadership which will interrelate administrative as well as instructional roles.

In this connection agreement can be reached readily in the fact that there are two types of roles, that of generalist and that of specialist. Perhaps this is a helpful way to identify functions, shared and unique, performed by various members of the educational team.

A generalist, such as an assistant or associate superintendent, director of instruction, coordinator of elementary or secondary education, will assume certain broad functions. The specialist, such as consultant in social studies, supervisor of art education, or coordinator of child study will be confined to functions peculiar to his subject matter area or specialty.

It is interesting to note that the generalist of the future is being thought of as a new breed. One descriptive term being used is that of the perceptive generalist. Such an instructional leader is described as one who will need to be gifted in comprehending and making decisions about problems which are characterized by complexity and by tangled relationships.

Two basic areas for study in arriving at some clarification of roles are: (a) What functions are being served by the instructional staff members through their various activities? and (b) What qualifications are needed by these workers to perform competently their diverse assignments?

The authors recently surveyed a selected group of 45 curriculum leaders representing all levels. Although these leaders serve as only a small and probably a central office sample, mainly, their responses give some answers to the two questions posed.

In terms of time devoted to certain functions, the responses revealed a priority for participation in the accomplishment of the following:

1. Analyzing the adequacy of new or existing instructional programs or activities. This might include coordinating or engaging in research or evaluation as well as the reporting of such efforts.
2. Formulating new or revised instructional purposes or policies. This includes primarily the policy decisions made at the school system level.

3. Defining and redefining content, methodology, materials, grade placement, time allocations and evaluation procedures.

4. Planning for the overall organization or design of instruction including the scope of the program at various levels, the sequence of learning opportunities, and the impact of the total program in terms of desired outcomes.

5. Directing and participating in in-service programs planned for the professional development of teachers and other staff members.

6. Organizing, coordinating and administering a staff of instructional service personnel such as general and special supervisors and audio-visual specialists.

An area of responsibility frequently discussed in the professional literature is that of analyzing the adequacy of new or existing instructional programs or activities. Our respondents did not identify this area as one to which they devoted much time. However, in describing the kinds of skills and knowledge needed to perform their jobs one of the foremost needs recognized was that of staying abreast of all that is new in educational and curricular developments.

Another approach to identifying primary functions of the overall instructional role may be illustrated in the broader, less specific, viewpoint as follows:

To develop balance in the curriculum

To develop balance in the educational program for the child

To develop commonality of goals

To provide for adjustment of contradictions within the program

To provide for control of the overdevelopment of individual areas

To provide for design and organization of the instructional program in terms of knowledge of human growth and development, value patterns, social trends, educational research

To provide for continuous evaluation in terms of fundamental principles and objectives

To stimulate change—to act as a change specialist

To provide for a synoptic view of all the areas.[4]

Recruitment and Selection

Two crucial problems facing any profession are the securing of an adequate number of persons to man the available positions and the recruiting of people of appropriate quality. Unfortunately, completely adequate data are not available as to the numbers of supervisors needed. One of the most careful attempts to estimate the need for new supervisors was made by Culbertson. Assuming that an average supervisor gives 26 years of professional service and using projections based on the U.S. Office of Education's "Ten Year Aims in Education," he estimated the numbers of supervisors and assistant superintendents needed for each of the next four two-year periods.[5]

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[4] New York City Conference Report as formulated at the January 1964 New York meeting of the ASCD Committee on the Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers.

	Assistant Superintendents	Supervisors
1963-64	910	2115
1965-66	1046	1962
1967-68	1203	1177
1969-70	1383	1192
	4542	6446

These estimates were the result of straight-line projections and so fail to take account of other than linear trend variables. Thus, variations in the rate of reorganization of school districts and changes in the size of school districts and even building units may not be appropriately reflected. Also, the lack of precise and uniform terms in designating supervisors is probably another source of error.

While it is not known what portion of the assistant superintendents will be responsible for instruction, it is probably somewhat less than half of the total number needed. When figures are reinterpreted on an annual basis, it appears that approximately 1000 supervisors, and possibly 500 assistant superintendents in charge of instruction were needed for 1965.

While a large number of institutions are offering programs to prepare supervisors, many individuals enter upon supervisory or curricular positions without special preparation. Also, it is probable that a great many more individuals already have met the certification requirements than there are positions available.

On the surface, quantity is not the problem. However, the intense competition for able personnel, which is certain to accompany the developing population and occupational patterns, raises questions as to whether sufficient numbers of qualified individuals can be secured.

Quality is an essential consideration and there are many difficulties in

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[5] Jack Culbertson. "How Much Money Is Needed and Where Will It Come From for Financing Quality University Programs in School Administration?" Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration, 1962.

> attaining it. There is probably little question of the right of a professional group or of a preparing institution to select for specific positions. The problems arise in identifying qualities that can be measured with sufficient precision to provide the bases for selection. Certainly this is an area in which the profession needs to assume greater responsibility if dependable methods of selection are to be devised. For the present, criteria which are available will, of necessity, be employed. Further criteria must be selected which are most appropriate to the point at which selection is to be made.
>
> To secure an adequate number of able supervisors and curriculum workers both alertness to opportunities and cooperation among various segments of the profession will be needed.[6]

Reference was made earlier to the fact that no one formula or set of formulae will appear to answer what the needs of a local district are in the realm of curriculum leaders. As stated, the local priorities and needs will be peculiar to each situation. Certainly one of the earliest priorities to be universally acknowledged is that in the field of reading. Remedial reading teachers, consultants and teacher-consultants in reading are operating on a building and central office level in most school systems, local or county.

Several years ago a study was made in New Jersey of the original seven school systems to establish the position of curriculum director. A consensus of the superintendents' opinions as to when a district needs such a person was reached. This consensus indicated as a rule of thumb that a school system with somewhere between 75-100 classroom teachers requires an assistant to the superintendent whose responsibility is that of coordinating the instructional program.[7]

Recent research by McKenna [8] has dealt with the number of professionals per 1000 pupils employed by school systems. He reports that some systems have 80 professionals per 1000 pupils, and some have only 25. He suggests that the national median is probably 50 per 1000. Studies of staffing adequacy which he reports suggest that a minimal setting for a high quality of education requires no less than 60 professionals per 1000 pupils. Further, he indicates that studies show that 15 of these

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[6] "The Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers." A Policy Proposal. Report of the Commission on the Preparation of Instructional Leaders. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, March 1962. p. 11-13.

[7] Harold T. Shafer. *A Study of Administrative Procedures Influencing the Evolvement of the Curriculum Director's Role in Seven Selected New Jersey School Systems.* Doctoral Project. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

[8] Bernard H. McKenna. "Do You Have Enough Staff To Do a Proper Job?" *American School and University* 36: 42-43; September 1963, and *IAR-Research Bulletin* 1: 1-4; April 1961. Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

60 professionals would hold positions that would not directly reduce class size: supervisory, administrative and guidance positions. Elementary school class size would be about 26 and secondary school class size would be about 22.

Historically, the major source of curriculum leaders has been the teaching ranks, lower levels of supervision, helping teachers and consultantships. For the levels of general coordinator and/or administrator of instruction, transfers from the administrative ranks, primarily at building level, have provided many workers. Generally, such promotions and transfers have taken place within a school system.

A question must be raised at this point regarding the frequent transfer or promotion of a line administrator, who by experience and preparation is primarily skilled in administration, to the position of general curriculum leader whose role should demand in-service education. The nature of the responsibilities of the curriculum leader is unique enough to demand its own major preparation.

This is not to be interpreted as ruling out the line officer as a curriculum leader. Yet, to be an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction demands just as highly specific preparation as that to be an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs, or to be a principal of a school.

Movement of curriculum leaders from district to district often tends to occur only after leadership experience has been obtained by the individual worker. Academic institutions have played significant roles in preparing and placing resource workers. However, more emphasis might well be placed upon a preparatory institution and local districts cooperating in areas of selecting, screening and guiding specific candidates with a potential for curriculum leadership. The satisfying of future needs cannot be left mainly to the voluntary initiative of those who are pursuing advanced preparation without much regard for the potential of the student.

Intensive competition on the open market for the able personnel probably means that boards of education will turn to other sources of supply in filling curriculum positions. Capable, well-trained persons in related fields may become a more fruitful source. Psychologists, guidance workers, specialists in the areas of materials and audio-visual aids, social workers, experts in all branches of the behavioral and social sciences may become active possibilities.

Curriculum leaders, of course, are not the only educators concerned about the number and quality of their recruits. The same future shortages are anticipated in the ranks of capable administrators, superintendents and building principals. Jack Culbertson, Executive Director of the University Council for Educational Administration, describes a long-term project in which the profession must actively survey high schools and colleges for potential recruits. Dr. Culbertson believes that an intensive program of securing future educational leaders needs to have a three-pronged approach:

> First, the importance, the challenge, and the career opportunities must be communciated (vigorously) to high school and college students.
>
> Second, at these levels of education those with promising leadership abilities must be identified so that they may be encouraged to enter educational careers. For this select group specific information about career routes is necessary.
>
> Third, provision for appropriate monetary incentive programs will be necessary to enable talented persons to obtain the education needed to make their maximum contribution as school leaders.[9]

Throughout this chapter numerous references are made or implied regarding the magnitude of responsibility for upgrading the effectiveness of the instructional workers. Paramount to this point of view is the fact that no one agency of preparation or employment can supply an adequate solution. A fuller realization of the problem and a higher level of action on the part of all areas of public education, teacher education institutions, professional organizations and lay advisory groups are and will be necessary. Providing career information and guiding the selective process will demand concentrated, high-level preparation and administration skilled in writing and in screening prospective candidates. Professionals on the administrative end of these two programs will need to be proficient in salesmanship, in diplomacy and in knowing at firsthand the positions to be filled.

Financial assistance is central to an incentive program. Careers regarded as essential for the present and future, call for five, six and six-plus years of preparation. Most candidates for such posts will need to interrupt their jobs with leaves or resignations or to take preservice education in conjunction with full-time work. Financial loss or increased debt is likely to be the rule in such cases. In the past and at present many candidates with family obligations have had to give up such career ideas because of cost.

Probably financial aid in the form of scholarships, fellowships, grants or loans available from many sources will need to be the answer to channeling the right prospects into preparation for such careers. Local boards, governmental agencies, professional organizations as well as colleges and universities should earmark money for such incentive programs.

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[9] Jack Culbertson. Report on "Recruiting Candidates To Prepare for Positions of Educational Leadership." Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration, 1962.

Standards for selection of curriculum leaders should be established which call first for fine basic personal characteristics. Authorities and trained observers believe that the various roles of curriculum leaders call for high intellectual ability, and for a top performance record in present or previous assignments. It is doubtful whether an unsuccessful or unhappy teacher, for example, could qualify for such a difficult role. School staffs generally include many teachers of high intellectual capacity and performance. Certainly a curriculum leader should be able to challenge and communicate with the ablest teachers and administrators.

Teaching experience as varied as possible with many related extra experiences is basic for all candidates interested in general supervision and curriculum work. Some administrative experience also may be enriching.

Programs of Preparation

Administrators and professors of institutions preparing curriculum workers, professional organizations and authorities in the field of preparation for educational leadership are giving much attention to preparatory programs. Several separate and joint commissions of various national associations such as the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development have been formed. In addition to these, the most active independent group is the University Council for Educational Administration. Comprised of professors of administration and of curriculum and instruction of some 30 to 40 teacher preparatory institutions throughout the country, studies by these groups have probed deeply into the educational leadership needs of the present and the future. Their reports have done much to point up the fact that because of the close interrelationships between administrators and curriculum leaders the work of both groups should be studied at the same time. Analysis indicates that present preparatory programs in the curriculum area are, even at best, woefully weak and inconsistent.

In defining programs of preparation in curriculum work, it is only natural to turn to the functions of curriculum leaders. Some of these functions have been indicated in an earlier section of this chapter on roles and responsibilities. However, the use of these functions as organizing centers for programs of preparation is not a sufficient guide. The supporting areas, such as human growth, development and learning; social forces affecting education; human relations skills and leadership; and the sociology and politics of change are also central. At present much ferment is evident regarding plans and programs for preparing curriculum leaders.

Simultaneously, there have been explorations of the desirable relationships between the preparation of curriculum leaders and other service personnel in school systems. One example of this was an effort to compare the common and unique learnings of administrators and curriculum leaders.[10] The researchers hypothesized that if one could identify duties and responsibilities common to both types of leaders as well as those which are solely identified with one group or the other, the differences and commonalities pertinent to preparing each type of worker would become evident.

The study revealed much in common in the functions performed by administrators and curriculum leaders. Also, the study identified some tasks performed by superintendents, building principals, administrators in charge of instruction, supervisors and coordinators, and consultants which are peculiar to each position. Preparatory curricula are therefore being planned with both common and specialized elements in mind.

Interdepartmental and intercollege concern for the design of future programs is becoming more necessary. Certainly school leaders from the field must take a larger and more active responsibility if preparation programs in colleges are to be adapted to the evolving roles and are to provide for adequate field experience.

To be sure, the preparatory program of the future should be characterized by consistency and unity within a preparing institution and among institutions, though a vital quality of such preparation will stem from flexibility and planning for the individual. The spirit and letter of such programs will be "working with the student," not "doing the work for him."

Certainly the quality of the professorial staff members becomes crucial in any program of preparation. Their knowledge, competencies, foresight and insight into the actual work, needs, trends and problems of the curriculum leader on the job will of necessity be both comprehensive and profound. Background opportunities for field experience will be provided for a significant portion of the staff. The facilities of the college will need to provide the best in libraries, clinics, laboratories, equipment, research centers and field contacts. These requirements plus a program of scholarships quite likely will exact a cost for such a preparatory program great enough to exhaust the present monetary resources of such institutions. Larger budgets will need to be provided by the states and boards of higher education.

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[10] Leu and Rudman, *op. cit.*

Paul Jacobsen, Dean of the College of Education, University of Oregon, has estimated the cost of preparing 40 resident students at the Ph.D. level in 1963, at $340,000, or $8,500 each; and the cost of preparing 80 students in 1972 at $1,200,000, or $15,000 each. It is his contention that if a preparatory institution does not have $100,000 to spend, it should not try to prepare people at the Ph.D. level in school administration and supervision.[11]

In establishing a base for graduate programs of preparation, an assumption is made that, prior to graduate preparation, to become a supervisor or curriculum worker, the student will have had preparation for teaching as well as teaching experience. This preparation for teaching, if adequate and complete, will constitute a firm base for the subsequent specialized program and for continued professional growth throughout the years. Preparation for teaching should have included:

1. A liberal education geared to the general problems of living in the present century
2. Specialized preparation which includes the content, method and structure of a discipline, particularly as this relates to teaching
3. Professional education which adds:
    a. Insight relative to learners and the learning process
    b. Understanding of the contribution and potential of various types of educational programs
    c. A commitment to continuous learning and a sharing of learning with others
    d. Skill in teaching and in the use of instructional materials
    e. An understanding of the process of changing curricula
    f. Skill in the use of research
    g. Growth in assuming the responsibilities of a member of the teaching profession
    h. Growing competence in interpreting education in the community.[12]

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[11] Paul B. Jacobsen. "Cost of Preparing School Administrators." *A Forward Look: The Preparation of School Administrators 1970.* Donald A. Tope, editor. Eugene, Oregon: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Oregon, 1960.

[12] For an elaboration and more complete development see: Margaret Lindsey, editor. *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession.* A Report of the Task Force on New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1961. Washington, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1961. Chapter 4.

On the basis of such preparation and subsequent teaching experience, preparation for instructional leadership can go forward with an assumption that participants have an understanding of the structure and influences affecting learners in schools with which they will be dealing.

Curriculum leaders are preparing to be functioning professional workers. Their program therefore should include more than verbal exercises. Lectures, extensive reading, written exercises of many kinds as well as discussions are important. However, guided experience in conducting individual conferences and interviews as well as in group leadership also becomes very significant. Case study analysis, role playing and other simulations of reality provide promising learning opportunities. Field experiences, including observations, surveys, field projects and an intensive and carefully supervised internship, become essential. Individual study as well as individual counseling and guidance is also mandatory.

Shortly, a minimum program of five years for teacher preparation is expected to become commonplace throughout the United States. In 1961, 48 states required four years of preparation for secondary school teachers, and 44 states had the same requirement for elementary school teachers. In the same year, three states required five years of college preparation.[13] Many authorities anticipate a rapid upward trend in these requirements. This suggests that a year beyond the master's degree might well become standard for curriculum leaders. Specialized preparation for this group would occur in the sixth year. It is only reasonable to assume that curriculum leaders will need at least a sixth year to gain command of their specialized responsibilities. Programs might well have characteristics such as the following:

1. A minimum of two years of graduate study with a carefully planned scope, sequence and interrelatedness for at least the sixth year
2. Core or block type courses serving simultaneously all those preparing to become superintendents, principals, and supervisors and curriculum workers
3. Specialized opportunities for each of the specialties included in the program, such as elementary school supervisors or curriculum workers, secondary school supervisors or curriculum workers and general supervisors or curriculum workers

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[13] *Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States*, 1961 edition. Washington, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1961.

4. A minimum of one full-time quarter or semester internship, carefully supervised and accompanied by related instruction and sharing of experiences by the various specialists being prepared

5. One semester or two quarters in full-time residence study

6. Well developed procedures for program planning, for diagnosis of student needs and for opportunities for students to demonstrate their competence.

The content and full range of experiences desired in preservice preparation of curriculum leaders should be designed to extend the students' knowledge in the fields of philosophy, foundations and history of education, and psychology. Still on a common basis, no doubt, course work in the areas of general leadership responsibilities such as policy making, methodology, research, decision making, human relations, public relations, instructional improvement techniques and principles, personnel, staff and pupil administration, and school law and finance should be extended beyond the levels required in teacher education. These probably can be learned best through combining theoretical experiences with practical experiences.

At this point differing avenues of formal education should take place to fit the type of specialization to be pursued. For those who plan to specialize as helping teachers, consultants and area supervisors, programs would now concentrate on knowledge and skills relative to the role, for example, of art supervisor, science consultant, teacher consultant in reading, language arts coordinator, director of audio-visual education, coordinator of research or supervisor of music. The best in instruction in a specific field would be emphasized so that such a prepared person would be an authority in his field. Application of preparation received in the general areas listed previously would now be applied, through observations, laboratory experience and field work, to the actual role.

For those planning to take positions of general supervision and coordination, the specialization would call for developing a high level of knowledge and skill in certain administrative responsibilities and a great deal of know-how in curriculum development, principles and methodology. A sound understanding of the gamut of learning and teaching of all aspects of the academic skills and the arts curricula must be attained by the generalist. Yet it is in the areas of understanding change and its characteristics, human relations, group as well as individual and the processes of arriving at decisions and policies that the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, director of instruction, or coordinator of instruction must be well prepared. He must be endowed with specific characteristics, which, coupled with techniques, qualify him as skilled in communication and public relations.

For both categories of instructional workers, the generalists and the specialists, the early emphases in preparation would be upon the functions, unique or shared, of the role to be performed. Somewhere, perhaps at the midpoint of the term of preparation, the emphasis would shift to stressing the functions to be served in the individual's specific intended position. It is at this point of shift of emphasis that the question of appropriate balance between course work and field experiences becomes important. In general, one could suggest that the application of one's classroom learning relative to the processes of instructional leadership must be exposed to reality in the field through observations and work assignments as soon as the individual student is ready for this step. Diagnosis of the student's need for additional preparation in his total competence to perform in these roles calls for early and frequent trips into the field. In summary, the formal preparatory program should result in an exploration by the student of the entire range of functions and processes of instructional work with depth experiences in specific areas.

Supervised internships are not new in curriculum leadership preparation. However, these requirements as yet have not been widely accepted. The suggestion is that such internships should be as basic as any other phase of preparation and that such opportunities should come at the same time as the theory relative to the experience to be analyzed and explored. If the actual baptism of fire is essential to the making of the curriculum worker, extensive opportunities for these experiences must be provided. The objective is to have the future curriculum leader operate in an actual school setting. By serving in a building or school system, performing specific duties such as conferring with a teacher, doing research, taking part in a survey, acting as a resource person to a curriculum committee or workshop, planning a conference, or serving as a chairman or recorder for a local committee, the intern is getting firsthand experiences.

In order to provide the intern with as wide and as varied a series of opportunities for experience as possible, a period of at least a semester is necessary. Planning for the expansion of internship programs calls for a much closer liaison between school systems and colleges. If internships are to serve well, local administrators and their staffs will of necessity commit themselves to designing a program which they and the representatives of the preparing institution consider central to sound preparation for curriculum leadership. Annual evaluation of the local opportunities, including staff members of the institution and district involved, should be conducted by a local committee responsible for internship programs.

On a regional or area basis, the universities and colleges might well organize advisory councils to improve internship programs through better cooperative planning. Although such a cooperative program is needed throughout each state and across the country, the large metropolitan centers have the conveniences of shorter distances and the clustering of preparatory institutions. In some metropolitan areas there are associations of school systems joined together to serve common interests and goals. Usually their center of operation is at one or more of the nearby institutions. Perhaps these groups could take active interest in the improvement of internship programs.

In addition to the need for school districts to take a more active role in improving such programs, responsibility also rests upon the leaders and staffs of the preparatory institutions to strengthen the field opportunities which they provide and supervise. Larger numbers of college supervisors are needed to achieve the kind of student-instructor relationships which will be conducive to change and improvement. Equally important will be the necessity of having field supervisors who are expert in the area or areas for which they are responsible. All aspects of a rich internship opportunity demand the services of respected, sensitive and experienced persons.

Much has been said in this chapter regarding the overlapping of functions in administrative and curriculum positions. The mobility of persons moving in and out of specific positions has also been identified as a complicating factor. This latter point means that more often than not the new appointee in curriculum and instructional improvement work has had no specific training in the area of his new assignment. To ensure the filling of these specialized roles with well prepared personnel, new approaches of many kinds appear to be essential.

Accreditation of Preparing Institutions

Accreditation is a little understood yet potentially powerful factor in the improving of preparation for curriculum leaders. There are strong feelings, both favorable and unfavorable, on the part of many persons, toward accreditation. Yet, in the United States, certification appears to be the primary means for assuring better programs of preparation and for protecting stronger institutions against competition with those having weak or inadequate programs.

Accreditation is a process by which some agency recognizes an institution or a program of study as meeting certain standards. In one form or another, accreditation has been used in this country for over 50 years. Several commentators, including Dr. Conant, have criticized present accreditation practices. It would still appear to be well, however, to solve problems of ensuring adequately qualified and prepared candidates for employment through mutually planned programs of evaluating and accrediting. Dr. Conant's alternative to the type of approach used by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education would be to leave matters of accreditation in the hands of individual teacher education institutions.

The U.S. Office of Education issues a publication approximately every four years, entitled *Accreditation in Higher Education*. The 1959 edition lists six reasons for accrediting institutions of higher education:

> 1. To encourage institutions to improve their programs by providing them with standards or criteria established by competent bodies
> 2. To facilitate the transfer of students from one institution to another
> 3. To inform those who employ graduates of an institution about the quality of training the graduates have received
> 4. To raise the standards of education for the practice of a profession
> 5. To serve as a support to administrative officers or faculty who want to maintain high standards but face considerable local difficulty in bringing about improvements
> 6. To serve the general public by supplying to the layman some information about the institutions he may wish to patronize.[14]

While accreditation of the total program of an institution has been a responsibility of regional accrediting agencies, professional accrediting bodies have been developed for each of the professions. Thus the American Medical Association, after the publication of the celebrated Flexner Report in 1910, took action to professionalize medical education. Other professional groups took similar action: dental education in 1918, legal education in 1923, teacher education in 1927, engineering education in 1936, pharmaceutical education in 1940. Almost every field of professional education today has some form of accreditation.[15]

In 1954, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education assumed the accrediting responsibilities formerly carried by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. NCATE has broad support within the field of education and, presumably, this organization will gain even wider approval both within and outside the education profession. NCATE has accredited more than 420 institutions up to 1963. Twenty-three states have designated NCATE as the accrediting body for teacher preparatory institutions beyond their borders and thus have greatly facilitated the reciprocity among the states in the certification of teachers.

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[14] *Accreditation in Higher Education*, 1959 edition. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1959. p. 4.

[15] National Society for the Study of Education. The Sixty-first Yearbook, Part II. *Education for the Professions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962.

NCATE accredits programs for school service personnel including supervisors and curriculum workers. The standards for accreditation cover the following areas: (a) the objectives of the program; (b) the organization for policy making, program planning and evaluation, and program administration; (c) student personnel policies and procedures; (d) the faculty; (e) the curriculum; (f) the laboratory experiences and (g) the facilities and instructional materials. Item (c), student personnel policies and procedures, includes reference to standards for admission to programs for preparation.

There are, apparently, relatively few well organized programs for the preparation of curriculum leaders. Probably most programs in existence can be substantially improved. Undoubtedly, a well executed plan of accreditation may interfere with some institutional ambitions and with the convenience of some prospective curriculum leaders. Yet, such accreditation appears to be an essential element in a rounded program of professional improvement.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is eager to further the process of accreditation of suitable programs of preparation for curriculum leaders. The Association has agreed to work with NCATE in the establishment of suitable standards for preparation of curriculum leaders. Subsequent cooperation by ASCD in planning for accreditation and in supporting the accreditation process will be essential to success in this endeavor.

Several suggestions are in order for the profession as well as for present and future accrediting agencies. Well considered study, in addition to practical programs of evaluation, should be based upon self-evaluation. In preparing for and participating in a visitation study, an institution should have as an outcome a sense of self-appraisal. Much of this spirit can be fostered by the accrediting agency in its effort to provide a set of minimum standards which will serve two purposes. First, the evaluated institutions will have a clear idea of standards to be met without feeling that a standardization of all institutional preparatory programs is what is desired. Second, provision for flexibility and individuality will permit each institution to develop strengths of its own.

Certification of personnel in various professions has long been exercised by states. Major purpose of such certification is to assure the public that its teachers or other professionals are eligible for employment or for practice. It also serves indirectly, of course, to give those who hold certification a measure of competitive protection against persons who are not certified.

Certification

States vary in their recognition of degrees of specialization within the teaching profession. In some states certification is highly specialized and rigid. In other states, certification is extremely general. This applies to both teaching and service positions. There is rather widespread agreement that specialization should proceed only as far as there is a basic differentiation of function. The assumption is made here that curriculum leaders have sufficient differentiation of function when they are compared with teachers or other service personnel, as indicated earlier in this chapter, to justify separate or special certification.

In some instances, certification is granted for specific periods of time. In others, there are specified credit-hour requirements for renewal. With the existence of many state and local provisions encouraging continuing growth in service, such temporary or term certification appears to be unnecessary. Once a supervisor is certified at what may be viewed as a full professional level, no renewals should be required. It is assumed, of course, that the established habit of continuing study as well as the opportunities for in-service education available will keep the supervising officer abreast of new developments and of recent professional literature.[16]

The certification regulations for curriculum leaders are at present chaotic. Regulations range from none at all to well organized graduate programs. Where certification requirements exist, these usually are limited to a course or two in supervision and in administration. In teacher education, at least, there is a strong trend toward state approval of programs of preparation, and toward certification of individuals on the recommendation of institutions whose approved program the individual has completed. This appears to be a sound development for many reasons and should be extended to supervision and curriculum improvement.

In the better preparatory programs for service workers, the teaching and administrative staff members are in the best position to know the qualifications, preparatory results and readiness of each applicant. The emphasis which has been placed upon recruitment and preservice education in this chapter would suggest that all preparing institutions should reach this same point of responsibility relative to being able to recommend for certification.

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[16] *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession* supports this position. See Margaret Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

Flexibility, of course, needs to be maintained to encourage certification by any one of a number of carefully planned and approved routes. Further, reciprocity among states, when certification is granted on the basis of satisfactory completion of approved and accredited programs, should be encouraged in every possible way. A generalized supervisory and curriculum improvement credential rather than several specialized credentials would appear to have many advantages.

Considerable study will be needed to define the proper type and number of certificates needed to cover the evolving roles of curriculum leaders. Too many varying credentials can distort the duties and responsibilities of supervision and of curriculum leadership.

Roles of Professional Organizations

As suggested throughout this chapter, professional organizations must have a much more significant role to play in improving the quality of curriculum leadership than they have demonstrated in the past. The attainment of a high quality of curriculum leadership appears to be dependent upon the realization of the developments outlined in this chapter.

Yet no one of these needed developments will take place automatically. In fact it is difficult to see these developments occurring without the vigorous and aroused leadership of professional organizations. A profession cannot improve its contribution to society without sustained and well directed efforts. The future of curricular leadership in American schools, given the conditions which exist today, rests very much with those who now serve in curriculum or instructional leadership positions, and depends upon the willingness of these professional persons to work together through well planned and organized efforts to move in the directions suggested in this chapter.

In summary, instructional leaders with varying areas of specialization who together constitute a team are required for today's educational program and for the needs of today's teachers with regard to that program. Guidelines for the preparation and continued growth of instructional leaders based upon an analysis of present and projected required competencies are urgently needed.

Appropriate professional organizations as well as preparing institutions not only have responsibilities for developing guidelines for pre- and in-service programs. They also have responsibilities which extend beyond these to include the areas of recruitment and selection of candidates and those of accreditation and certification.

Looking ahead, Paul Klohr in Chapter Six points to directions which it is well for use to keep in mind when charting guidelines for the preparation and continuing growth of supervisors and curriculum leaders.

Chapter Five

The Supervisor and Curriculum Director at Work

Helen Heffernan and
Leslee J. Bishop

A MAJOR problem confronting the persons contributing to this chapter has been: What are promising practices and procedures? Conditions differ widely in the school systems serving the children and youth of our country. The Yearbook Committee identified many situations which might show supervisors and curriculum directors functioning in a variety of ways. Some of the ways noted were (a) as head of a large staff with the total range of responsibilities and skills with reference to curriculum development; (b) as policy maker; (c) as policy maker and implementer—sole member of a curriculum staff; (d) as sole implementer in a large geographical area; and (e) as one of a staff of supervisors charged with implementation of curriculum.

Conditions Basic to Sound Organization and Practice

Although the examples in the following pages are not necessarily ideal illustrations of school practices and procedures, they may, nevertheless, illustrate how professional persons have attempted to carry out their recognized functions under diverse conditions.

An examination of the descriptions of organization, practice and procedure indicates several common principles which might well be developed into criteria for evaluation. Among these principles are the following:

1. Every school system or service organization should have or should develop a clear statement of its philosophy and objectives to which the professional staff, the board of education and a majority of the members of the community subscribe.

2. Every school system should have an on-going program of evaluation designed to reveal at any time where the school stands with reference to all the objectives to which the school system is committed.

3. The school system should have written long-term and short-term plans for activities designed to strengthen programs in which evaluation reveals need.

4. The school system should have firm policies concerning:

   a. A comprehensive study of the research related to any organizational or curricular innovation proposed; and

   b. The establishment of a limited pilot experiment on any proposed innovation before extending it to the entire school system.

5. The school system should have a firm commitment to the belief that the preparation of professional personnel is a lifelong process facilitated by carefully designed programs of in-service education.

6. The school system should have a firm commitment to the belief that in a dynamic society curriculum must change but that change must always be justified in terms of

   a. The social needs of the times

   b. The maturity levels and needs of the learner

   c. New and old findings in human growth and development

   d. New and old findings that point the way to sound theories of learning and teaching

   e. The structure of the specific subject matter content and the discovery of new knowledge.

7. In any defensible organization, personnel must include

   a. A director concerned with the content and method and the horizontal and vertical articulation of a total educational program

   b. Specialists with knowledge of the growth and development of learners at the various maturity levels served

   c. Specialists qualified to differentiate curriculum in terms of individual variations in learners

   d. Subject-matter specialists

e. Guidance personnel
f. Psychological and psychiatric consultants
g. Health workers
h. Social workers to bridge the gap between home and school.

These criteria have implications related to the size of school systems that can be efficiently and economically maintained. No practice or procedure can replace provision for thoroughly qualified personnel exercising their appropriate roles. The major effort of educational leadership should be directed toward creating a structure in which at least all services stated in the criteria can be made available for every child. Improvement in the quality of practice will follow a structural organization which provides personnel adequate to the task.

Incorporating and Coping with Change—Elementary

Policies and Procedures in Elementary School Curriculum Changes[1]

The Downers Grove Elementary District is a K-8 system with children in grades K-6 housed in nine buildings and children in grades 7-8 housed in two buildings. The former are referred to as elementary schools and the latter as junior high schools.

The typical elementary building has 14 rooms, which usually house two kindergarten groups and two groups at each grade level. Average school enrollment is 375. The junior high schools are departmentalized and serve about 500 children each. All buildings have full-time principals.

The central office staff consists of a superintendent and of assistant superintendents in charge of personnel, business and instruction.

The instruction division has an elementary consultant, an art consultant and a library consultant, all of whom serve only the K-6 schools. Itinerant teachers for physical education and vocal and instrumental music are also a part of the instructional division. Special service personnel in the instructional division include a psychologist, three school social workers and four speech correctionists. These latter eight persons serve all schools, both K-6 and 7-8.

The Teacher the Key Person in Curriculum Change. It is the philosophy of the administration that curricular changes are most likely to be for the better and are more lasting if teachers are encouraged to make changes as they see the need for them, desire to attempt them and are willing to prepare for them. The usual name applied to this technique is the "broken front" approach to curriculum change.

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[1] Contributed by Melvin Hetland, Assistant Superintendent, Instruction, Downers Grove Public Schools, Downers Grove, Illinois.

As evidence of their support of this philosophy the Board of Education has established the following policy:

> The Board of Education encourages experimentation in curriculum and instructional methods; experimentation is one of the keystones of progress. . . . Basic changes in course content, and the addition of courses to the curriculum, shall be approved by the Board of Education.

Principals Serve on Central Curriculum Committee. The central curriculum group is the Principals' Curriculum Committee. This group consists of the principal of each building, the elementary consultant and the assistant superintendents for instruction and personnel. The chairman of the committee is the assistant superintendent for instruction. The purpose of this committee is to assess instructional needs, to cause the more pressing needs to be studied and to formulate plans of action, to recommend appropriate action and to evaluate the results of all changes.

The Principals' Curriculum Committee conducts problem surveys among the staff periodically, not annually, but no less frequently than every three years. The purpose of these surveys is to give the teaching staff an opportunity to present problems of concern to them and to help assess their relative importance. The deliberations and actions of the committee are distributed to all staff members following each meeting. Most often the reports of progress of special study committees are included as a part of these reports. In large part the effectiveness of this committee is directly related to the degree of the chairman's commitment to the principle that all who are likely to be affected must be involved and upon his insistence that this principle shall not be ignored. After a reasonable period of time, this value is one that the principals come to hold in high esteem. An equally important justification for this approach is that following committee action principals become facilitators rather than brakes on action.

Important to the functioning of the Curriculum Committee is the fact that formal votes are not taken. After apparently sufficient discussion of an issue, the chairman attempts to formulate a statement or proposal which seems to embody the basic agreements. Generally it is necessary to go through this process many times before consensus is achieved. However, experience has demonstrated that this approach is well worth the investment of time, since its use prevents the development of polarized positions.

Teachers Serve on Major Curriculum Committees. Special committees, consisting of a teacher from each building with representation at all grade levels, are activated for major curriculum studies. Each of these special committees will normally have, in addition to the teacher membership, at least two persons from the central committee. At any given time two special committees are usually functioning.

Flexible Initiation of Curriculum Changes. Another factor which is undoubtedly important to the effective functioning of the curriculum organization is that of not insisting that all buildings or all classrooms within a building use identical instructional programs. At first some concern was expressed by the Board of Education that this practice, due to the wide variations that might develop within the district, might cause public relations problems. However, board members have now had sufficient time to observe that the development and spread of meritorious curriculum changes are so enhanced by this practice that they are willing to risk the problems in public relations. They have further learned that sometimes questions from parents to their children's teachers about the use or non-use of certain programs can become effective stimulants for a teacher to consider seriously the values seemingly discovered by other teachers in implementing specific changes.

In assessing the relative effectiveness of our curricular practices, we point out that the district moved from a rigid, undifferentiated reading program to an individualized, self-selected reading program in a period of three or four years. At the beginning of any year not all teachers new to the system use an individualized program, but they are encouraged in this direction by their fellow teachers and are given all the assistance they request. By November of each year virtually all teachers have begun to use an individualized approach in reading.

Another change that has become district wide and quite comprehensive in a similar span of time has been the introduction and use of modern mathematics programs from grades 1 through 8. Because of the relative importance of sequence and continuity in mathematics, it was necessary to establish that once a child started in a modern program he would be assured of continuity in the program. At no time did this requirement present a problem.

Consultants Replace Special Subject Teachers. A further change carried through was that of moving from the use of itinerant art teachers to the providing of an art consultant. The request for this change originated from several teachers who had become dissatisfied with the limitations in this particular itinerant program. As a result the problem was studied and a proposal was made. Some resistance developed because a broken front approach apparently could not be utilized in making this change. However, teachers were continually consulted for suggestions, the principals gave unqualified support, and an excellent consultant was obtained.

The results have been most gratifying to everyone in the school district. Creativity is evident in pupils' work throughout the system and teachers are very enthusiastic. Art has ceased being a chore and has become more of an instrument of fulfillment to the many teachers who have had the pleasure of witnessing the release of creativity in the children and in themselves.

The Assistant Superintendent as Coordinator of the Educational Program [2]

An assistant superintendent in charge of instruction in a school system with approximately 250 teachers must view the job as one of overall direction and coordination of the total educational program. Such administration must be an action story with pupils, teachers, resource teachers, administrators, board of education members, parents and other citizens working together for the betterment of the educational program in the schools. A concern for the dynamic quality of the curriculum must be evidenced by an organizational pattern by which the ideas of many can be weighed and valued in the formulation of decisions, practices and policies. Many different roles must be played by the person responsible for the curriculum when it is viewed in its relationship to the broad picture of the school and the community.

As the program of the public school has become more complex over the years, so has the organizational machinery which is necessary for the everyday operation of the system. The role of the coordinator is to keep in focus the goals set for progress and improvement in the schools and to help in guiding the professional activities toward accomplishment of these agreed-upon purposes.

Range of Professional Activities in a Small School System. The professional staff activities in the Wilmette system cover a wide range. These activities vary from meeting the needs of new teachers to challenging the total staff and community groups in a program of continuous evaluation and change in the school program.

Three broad areas represent the professional activities:

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[2] Contributed by Dorothy Oldendorf, Assistant Superintendent, Wilmette Public Schools, Wilmette, Illinois.

1. Improving teachers' understanding of the educational process
2. Evaluating and changing the curriculum
3. Studying and improving practices and policies.

In describing the activities planned to improve the work of the faculty of the Wilmette Public Schools, it seems desirable to analyze the manner of meeting and working together. Meetings intended for all are usually the result of cooperative planning by all those who are concerned with the outcome of the meeting. For this reason the meetings which are a part of the in-service program at system-wide level are planned by administrators and teachers with the help of the Planning and Policy Committee. Building meetings also serve an important part in the total in-service program, and therefore planning of how this time shall be used is a matter of joint teacher-principal action. For a total school staff or school system to work together for unified purposes, much planning and thinking must go on within the group.

Activities Contribute to Unity in School System. In discussing matters appropriate for staff consideration, the group must determine whether resulting decisions and activities should apply at building or at system-wide level. Such consideration will also give some leads as to how to organize for the activity.

The system-wide activities are designed to foster a desirable unity of philosophy for the schools and also to challenge the thinking of staff members. The building level activities offer opportunity to evaluate and study at appropriate times classroom and school problems with the persons most directly concerned.

The activities described are grouped by the committee to carry out the three purposes previously stated. However, no clear line of division of purposes is intended, since there is an overlapping between activities which are planned to improve teacher competency, the school program, and the practices and policies of the school. The following activities seem to be appropriate both for system-wide and building-level work.

1. Meetings or activities designed to improve teachers' understanding of the educational process through:
    a. Reports on educational research or findings in related fields
    b. Use of consultants or experts in human development
    c. Local studies related to child behavior, individual differences and the learning process
    d. Professional development seminars conducted at building level to serve a specific need or interest

e. Grade level meetings to exchange ideas and to learn from other staff members

f. Demonstrations of teaching methods and techniques such as those in audio-visual, art or music workshops.

2. Meetings or activities designed to evaluate and change the school program through:

a. Seminars at building level to serve a need or interest in a specific subject area

b. Use of consultants or experts in subject areas

c. Study of subject areas on grade level basis

d. Study of subject areas through committees working on vertical basis for articulation between grade levels, also between elementary and high school levels

e. Examination of materials of instruction, including textbooks and audio-visual aids, in relation to effectiveness and teaching method

f. Evaluation of practices and policies in light of progress, for example, studying testing program and results as related to curriculum development, and promotional policy as related to pupil progress

g. Studies of the community with evaluation of implications for the educational program

h. Visitations and observations within the system and in other systems.

3. Meetings or activities to study and improve school practices or policies through:

a. Evaluative studies involving professional staff

b. Evaluative studies involving professional staff and parents or citizens groups

c. Evaluative studies involving professional staff and community agencies or services

d. Systematic examination of goals and progress toward goals.

Guiding Principles in an In-service Education Design. To design an in-service education program productive of overall goals the following guiding principles or basic beliefs are used:

1. The climate for teaching should be conducive to experimentation and should allow freedom for creative teaching.

2. Good staff relationships should promote a feeling of worth for each member through respect for individual differences, recognition of a wide range of talents and opportunities to contribute to the in-service education program.

3. Leadership for an in-service education program should encour-

age participation by all staff members. Through participation, the role of leadership becomes the opportunity and the responsibility of all.

4. Through study and by engaging in in-service education activities, the staff should gain a sense of accomplishment. Action should result in some concrete form when appropriate, but growth in understanding of human development and a renewed feeling of pride in the teaching profession are also examples of worthwhile goals. Reinforcement of a belief in a practice or policy already in existence in a school, as well as in guidance for orderly change should be expected outcomes of staff study.

5. A study or project by any staff group must be presented cooperatively and accepted by the faculty as a part of the process of change, if action is to be taken which affects the entire school system, either directly or indirectly.

6. An in-service education program which will serve the many needs of implementing change should include a variety of approaches and a broad range of purposeful activities. It is important to use a broken front approach to keep a sense of balance between the type of activities and the time spent on such activities.

Using an Experienced Teacher in a Limited Supervisory Role[3]

Nowadays there is more and more concern about the well being of the classroom teacher. Teachers are under challenge to do more for the quick to learn, the average and the slow to learn; to stimulate the "late bloomer" and to encourage the "reluctantly gifted." It is undoubtedly true that a school is as good as its teachers.

In introducing the Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Paul A. Witty states:

> Mental health is a crucial need of teachers. Surveys have suggested that the incidence of emotional instability is as high among teachers as in other occupational groups. Moreover, studies have revealed that the frequency of personality disorder is very high among children in the classes of unstable teachers. Accordingly, the prevention and the development of improved conditions for teaching and learning are responsibilities of administrators. . . .[4]

A number of projects in team teaching have been reported in books, pamphlets and periodicals. The emphasis has been on various organizational concepts of team teaching. In this report the importance of team teaching in promoting the mental health of the classroom teacher is stressed. The report (a) gives an overview of a design of a five-teacher team in an elementary school; (b) describes how the administrator may use an experienced teacher in a limited supervisory role to help classroom teachers feel secure and confident; and (c) describes the personal reactions of a five-teacher team.

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[3] Contributed by Grace W. Gates, Principal and Coordinator of Elementary Education, Clarence Central Schools, Clarence, New York.

[4] *Mental Health in Modern Education,* the Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1955. p. 1.

The School Setting. The Ledgeview Elementary School is one of five elementary schools in the Clarence Central School District. Clarence is a rapidly growing community on the Niagara Frontier in the metropolitan area of the city of Buffalo, New York. The setting is rural-suburban. This 800 pupil school opened in September 1962 with 600 pupils. A year later, this school had an enrollment of 655 pupils in kindergarten through grade six. Ledgeview, the newest and largest of the elementary schools in Clarence, has special facilities that were planned for the development of a team-teaching program.

Three intermediate (grades 4, 5 and 6) classrooms are designed for large group instruction. Electrically-operated folding partitions are quickly and easily adjustable. Study-work rooms adjoining several intermediate-grade classrooms are used for individualized teaching and guidance, for independent study, for special reference and laboratory material in English, literature, science, mathematics and social studies. Intermediate grade teachers use these rooms for planning and parent conferences. The classrooms are equipped with rotating space dividers for independent, or small group, study centers.

Within the boundaries of the Ledgeview School, socioeconomic backgrounds differ from high to low middle class. However, few, if any, families would be considered culturally deprived. The pupils represent a wide range of intellectual abilities.

The Organization for Team Teaching. Team teaching in the Ledgeview School is being followed with interest by other schools in the district and in western New York. Will this organization provide a more or a less effective teaching and learning situation than does the self-contained classroom? Will teachers working with children in a team approach offer the pupils more or less sympathetic and sensitive individual guidance? Such questions are being studied intensively in this setting.

The preliminary plans for the team-teaching program were begun with a skeleton staff in January 1962. In early discussions the principal and teachers considered introducing the program at the fourth, fifth and sixth grade levels. After two weeks of study during the summer, plans were made to prepare parents and pupils for its inauguration in the fall of 1962. All of the fourth, fifth and sixth grade teachers available were involved in the preplanning sessions. During this workshop it was decided to begin the program at the fifth and sixth grade levels, and to continue study of its implementation at the fourth grade level. A second session took place in the summer of 1963 involving a total of 14 members of the three teaching teams. An additional teacher was later added at the sixth grade level to reduce class size. Plans were made for the coming year and procedures were refined.

A team member commented on summer planning in these words: "The work planned during the summer makes for a less tense start the following school year. In a relaxed atmosphere after school is out, the 'unwinding' as a group is most beneficial."

Plans for team teaching at the fourth grade level were not completed during the second planning session due to teacher turnover. Three of the five members were new teachers. After continuing the study during the first semester of the year 1963-64, the fourth grade teachers started a shared teaching-planning program with fourth grade pupils at the beginning of the second semester in February 1964. An administrative intern in the Ford Foundation Program at the University of the State of New York at Buffalo, worked closely with the fourth grade team beginning in the fall of 1963. The plan was modified to be more suitable to the age, growth and development of fourth grade children.

The report here is confined to the working relationships of the fifth grade team, and to the outcomes in terms of the mental health of the team. About 125 fifth grade pupils were involved in the experiment.

Team teaching as described in professional and popular publications is not so much a specific form of school structure as it is an organizational concept. Such terms as "personnel utilization," "instructional unit" and "shared teaching and planning" describe its purpose. No consensus has been reached as to a formula for the organization of a team. Team teaching may take form in a variety of ways.

The fifth grade team has a chairman and a coordinating teacher; in this case, two men and three women constitute the team. The key person is the coordinating teacher who assumes a limited supervisory role in helping teachers with techniques and materials. The chairman assumes responsibility for details for planning sessions, for distributing materials and other activities to release the coordinating teacher for his important role. The chairman also serves as resource teacher in science. Other teachers assume the lead roles in English, mathematics and social studies. The coordinating teacher, whose area of special competence is reading, is freed from teaching responsibilities half of each day. She assists and demonstrates not only in reading, but in other subject matter areas as well. She helps plan for enrichment activities and remedial work. She makes suggestions for classroom management. The lead teachers, while primarily responsible for one subject, teach their homeroom class reading, spelling and handwriting. The shared planning meetings enable the teachers to be familiar with the children's progress in all curricular content areas. Thus, at times, when large group instruction is used, these teachers may instruct a follow-up group in an area other than their area of concentration. Large group instruction is used reservedly; and only when it is expected that it will fill a definite need in the instructional program.

Auxiliary staff persons teach pupils in the team, and/or serve as consultants in the shared planning meetings. These include special teachers in library, art, music, physical education, speech and reading; plus the school nurse-teacher, psychologist and social worker. Some nonprofessional duties are performed by office secretaries.

A period of one hour four days a week is set aside during the school day for planning sessions. School is dismissed 45 minutes earlier on Monday for professional meetings. However, team teaching requires considerably more planning than does traditional teaching. Teachers frequently meet for extended periods after school hours.

Reactions of the Team. To secure the reactions of team members, certain questions were addressed to them. The questions and responses follow:

1. How does the coordinating teacher feel about his job?

> For 15 years, I taught in a self-contained classroom and liked it. I was skeptical of what I had read of team teaching until I joined the fifth grade team this year. This has been the most exciting and enjoyable experience of my teaching career. In many ways team teaching is more difficult than teaching in a self-contained classroom. Team planning is demanding of one's time and energy. A team teacher has a responsibility to the *whole* team, to all 125 children in the fifth grade, as well as to fellow team teachers. This broad and sometimes heavy responsibility, however, brings with it a great reward, the joy and security of being an integral part of this close professional group.

2. What is the point of view of a lead teacher in a subject area?

> The role of the lead teacher in any subject area is largely dependent upon the attitudes and abilities of the other team members. While respon-

sibility for the overall presentation and coordination of the subject area rests with the lead teacher, he draws heavily upon the other members of the team for support, advice, criticism and assistance. In a smoothly operating team the successful completion of work in any subject is the work of all team members. Pooling abilities and resources tends to relieve the lead teacher of the burden of entire responsibility for the subject area. Although the lead teacher may be in charge of a certain area, the actual "responsibility" belongs to the team, not to the individual. Team members learn from each other and become better equipped to teach because of extended professional contacts and opportunities to explore problems and ideas in a group.

3. How does the first year teacher feel about the team approach?

If mental health is the emotional adjustment in which a person may live with reasonable comfort and success, I can state that at least from the point of view of one participant, acceptable mental health for a first year teacher is achieved, even promoted, by a team approach.

The team approach creates a feeling of individual importance, of being a part of something new, something growing. The individual has duties and responsibilities which develop a sense of belonging. The new teacher belongs to a group, yet to a group that is not so large one becomes lost in it. Group security, coupled with individual responsibility and a sense of actively striving to achieve a worthwhile goal, promotes mental health in a first year teacher.

The team approach provides the first year teacher with a source of experience from which he may extract assistance according to his needs. Contact with experienced teachers of broad background and knowledge, as well as with teachers of similar experience and background, is vitally important to a first year teacher who is eager to improve and succeed. The team provides the first year teacher with a human textbook from which he may gather the experiences and knowledge needed to build a career. This sense of building is in itself an important part of emotional adjustment.

A third way in which a team approach may promote mental health is through providing an opportunity to evaluate, discuss, share and consider any and all problems cooperatively. In such a shared approach, evaluation is a continuing feature. Evaluation of the techniques of others in comparison with one's own happens daily. For this purpose, a team approach may provide a sense of availability. One is made aware of a rich variety of ways and means. Thus, self-evaluation is promoted and shared.

An ability to see growth may be fostered through the evaluative process in team teaching. It is important for the mental health of any individual that he may be able to see progress. Team discussions can promote this ability to see growth. One may see growth through comparison with others and through recollection of past experience shared.

4. How does the team help smooth the way for the teacher beginning at midyear?

Being a midyear graduate and fresh out of college, I came totally new and inexperienced to teaching. It is difficult for anyone, whether new or experienced, to take over someone else's class in the middle of the year after patterns and routines have been established. However, the team teaching situation has facilitated this task. Everyone begins a career with a certain degree of nervousness and anticipation, but with a team of teachers backing you up, self-confidence can be gained.

I have received much help in getting started from the members of the team. I welcome the helpful criticism and supervision which are given a newcomer by the team members. I believe this affords a wonderful opportunity to better myself and gain in knowledge from the talents and accomplishments of co-workers.

In team teaching, each teacher assumes his share of responsibility for each child. In my case the task of pupil evaluation is made easier, for I can discuss and share my views with other members of the team. We share in teaching and planning so as to provide for each child's needs. Each teacher shares his problems with the others. Thus understanding and solutions are reached together.

Another helpful aspect of team teaching is that teachers are not afraid to pool resources and to try new ideas with each member participating.

This report has attempted to present a point of view that would stimulate supervisors, administrators, teachers and others interested in team teaching to explore the use of an experienced teacher in a limited supervisory role, and to evaluate the results of this grass roots approach in terms of the mental health of classroom teachers. Team teaching, in the opinion of many persons [illegible] not only to more efficient teaching and learning in our schools, but may assist also in the fostering of a generation of more secure and stable children who can cope more successfully with their school work.

The School Principal's Role in Supervision and Instructional Improvement[5]

Professional literature on the role of the school principal has long assigned varying but rather high percentages of his time to the supervision of instruction. This means that a goodly portion of the principal's day should be reserved for the direction of the educational program and the improvement of instruction through his on-the-spot supervision.

Gradually the profession has become convinced about the need for this role of the principal. Thus it has become policy in certain school systems for general curriculum workers and special subject supervisors to visit an elementary school only upon the invitation and request of the school principal.

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[5] Contributed by Helen Heffernan, Chief, Bureau of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education.

School administrators have begun seriously to question the effect of this policy on the quality of the educational program. Actually, many school principals do not call on the experts available from the central office and seem to resist suggestions that well-qualified personnel are available and eager to render professional assistance.

Logically, the school administrator asks himself why the principals do not call for the services of available, competent specialists. In principals' meetings, references are made by the principals themselves to a broad spectrum of unsolved problems; yet any suggestion that a central office staff member might be able to provide help seems in many instances to generate resistance.

On the other hand, supervisors and curriculum consultants, questioned about outstanding principals in their school system who might have contributions to make to conference programs, workshops, summer sessions, professional organizations or official committees, nearly always have enthusiastic recommendations concerning certain principals. Further questioning nearly always reveals that the particular principal being discussed is making extensive use of central office staff members in various ways such as improving the science program in the middle grades, in holding a series of in-service teacher-parent conferences, in planning procedures to stimulate creative writing and to evaluate the outcomes, in planning an exhibit showing the developmental stages in children's paintings, in developing a series of 20 parent-education meetings with the kindergarten teachers and in many other specific and exciting projects of great educational value to children.

Similar questioning of other principals only occasionally results in a comparably enthusiastic evaluation of relationships with the curriculum staff of the central office. If objective evidence is not available, imagination always goes to work to conjure up the reasons why this seems true. In finding the causes of behavior, the school person might begin to question: "Could it be that the principal feels he will be confessing an inability to solve the problems which his professional training or the position has defined as his role? Could it be that he is under pressure with such urgent and immediate duties, he really does not have time to find out the needs that exist in his school? Could it be that he is uncertain about his ability to evaluate the work of a teacher in the kindergarten or first grade and is reluctant to reveal this gap in his training? Could it be that he considers art or music or some other subject of little importance and so does not want to waste the time from the 'solid subjects' of teachers and children? Could it be that he considers the school his own little empire and wants no intrusion or 'interference'?"

Recognizably, the relationship between the responsible administrative head of a school and the trained staff in curriculum, guidance and special education provided for the school system as a whole needs to be studied. Due thought must be given to this relationship in any organization that is to perform effectively the supervisory, curricular or in-service education functions of a modern school system.

Perhaps we can illustrate this point through a case study. Recently a well qualified curriculum consultant agreed to take over the position of an elementary school principal for a year, during his leave of absence for professional study. Here was an acting school principal whose major interest during a successful career had been in curriculum development and learning suddenly confronted with the responsibilities a principal faces day-after-day. This seemed to offer an opportunity to determine whether the books dealing with the principalship were, for example, realistic or unrealistic in regard to the amount of time recommended for the task of supervision and direction of the instructional program.

Cooperation was readily obtained.[6] On January 1, 1964, the central office curriculum consultant, now an elementary principal, wrote:

> I have kept a record of the activities to which I give my attention. When your letter came our school was busy with the PTA fall carnival. Then the school was closed for Veterans' Day. Therefore, my record begins on November 12. The period, November 12 to December 20, the day our school closed for the holidays, was badly broken by holidays, the dark days following our great national tragedy, school on minimum-day schedules to hold individual teacher-parent conferences, and then the holiday stir preceding December 20. The facts and figures I am submitting cover 25 days beginning November 12.

If calm judgment and serenity are essential for successful educational leadership, it is painfully obvious that the person quoted would have needed superhuman qualities to have achieved these. Save for the tragic events which made this particular period memorable, most principals would agree that the maelstrom character of this principal's 25 days reasonably well characterizes life as it goes on in an average elementary school.

Because this principal is an unusually conscientious person, she hastened to add in a second paragraph the warning that

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[6] At her request, the principal who recorded the basic data for this case study must remain anonymous.

It is well to consider, also, the fact that I have not served as an elementary school principal for many years. Were my hand more skilled in the work, the report might be somewhat better. I fear not much better, however, as far as supervision of the curriculum is concerned.

The principal attempted to develop the report under two points contained in the writer's request: (a) activities that may be considered policy making, and (b) activities carried on as one of a staff charged with implementing the curriculum. Her success in identifying these categories is shown in the following tables:

Table 1. Activities Related to Policy Making

	Hours	*Percent of Time*
On the County Level		
1. Evaluating books for state adoption with county staff	3	
2. Considering results of testing program with county consultant	3	
Total	6	3
On the District Level		
1. Administrative staff meetings	10	
2. Meeting with district staff	1½	
3. Conferring with other principals	3	
Total	14½	7¼
On Individual School Level		
1. With curriculum consultant who spends one day in seven in school	3	
2. With guidance consultant who spends one day a week in school	6	
Total	9	4½
Grand Total	29½	14¾

In activities related to policy making, the principal worked with the central county office staff on textbook evaluation and study of standard test results for her school. She worked with the staff of the district in meetings devoted to decisions concerning district policy. During the 25-day period for which the record was kept, she devoted nine hours to conferences with the district curriculum and guidance consultants on problems of the school. Nearly 15 percent of her time was categorized as activities related to policy making.

In relation to Table 2, the principal stated that visits to the classrooms were usually brief and for purposes of general management.

The conferences with teachers were both individual and group conferences and during this period were concerned with evaluating test results, reporting pupil progress to parents, and general curriculum practices. In observing work on Christmas programs, the principal was primarily concerned to see that each class was to be accommodated rather than to suggest curricular changes although some suggestions for such changes resulted from this observation.

Table 2. Activities Related to Implementing the Curriculum

Activities	*Hours*	*Percent of Time*
Visiting classrooms	15	7½
Conferring with teachers	14	7
Reading teachers' reports to parents	12	6
Arranging for and orienting substitutes	4	2
Demonstration teaching	3	1½
Observing staff work on Christmas program	3	1½
Total	51	25½

The foregoing charts account for approximately half of the principal's time. The list of activities which occupied the other 50 percent of her time defy categorizing. These are the activities that make the administration of an elementary school such a source of frustration if the principal tries to take seriously the admonitions of his college professors or his employer regarding his role as the curriculum director for the school.

The principal listed another 20 hours, or 10 percent of her time, devoted to telephone calls and face-to-face conferences with parents, parent-teacher association conferences, committee sessions to plan meetings and advice to parent-teacher association officers.

The principal then attempts to list the inescapable, time-consuming activities that must be given immediate and continuous attention if a large operation involving 550 human beings is to proceed smoothly. These activities include the following:

Management of lunchroom
Management of noon playground
Requisitions for and care of equipment
General discipline problems largely on bus
Problems of attendance
Problems of admission, transfers, health and accident reports
Custodial problems—bells, supplies, grounds, maintenance
Problems related to special classes

Conferences with teachers on personal problems

Office work: books apportioned and delivered to classrooms, preparing reports, timing fire drills.

At this point, the principal must have wanted to write, "*et cetera, et cetera, et cetera,*" like the King of Siam, and call it a day. The principal concludes:

> It is totally unrealistic to expect the principal, who must give attention to the situations cited, to keep up with the research on spelling, reading, mathematics, child development and so on and find time to help the teachers, who themselves do not have time to read the research. Moreover, my situation is better than most. The administration in this district has always maintained a high level of interest and help in matters related to supervision and curriculum development.

One of the most promising practices in education would be to look at the facts and then act courageously in terms of what they reveal. Nothing could be more futile than to continue the verbal bludgeoning to which many principals are subjected. We must recognize that there are not enough hours in the day or energy enough to do all the things that need to be done to serve children at the level at which they should be served in our society.

Educators are prone to seek "easy answers." As we look at this principal's situation, questions will come thick and fast: Does the principal have competent secretarial help? Is she able to organize her work efficiently? Is she trained for responsibilities in supervision and curriculum development? The implication in such questions would seem to be that anyone with a whit of sense would find the solution to these little problems. So far as the principal in this case study is concerned, the answer to all the questions is "yes."

The time is long overdue for educators to forsake easy answers. Let us recognize that no administrative tinkering will cure the conditions in our schools. These conditions need direct rather than tangential solutions. Our elementary schools are woefully understaffed. In the particular school under study, with 550 human beings to be served, *two* thoroughly qualified persons are needed who share the functions of leadership. These persons should be chosen because of the unique competencies of each rather than in terms of formal job specifications set up by someone too remote from the job to know its needs. In such a school, a full-time, trained librarian should be giving expert assistance to teachers and children on all instructional materials. An unassigned teacher should be regularly employed to take a class while a teacher is observing a demonstration, to assist on difficult learning problems requiring diagnosis and intensive individual work to prevent a child from failing, to serve on occasion as a substitute when the regular list is depleted and to do any one of a hundred tasks that require professional judgment and a margin of uninterrupted time.

The critics who know precisely what is wrong with the schools would no doubt be thoroughly convinced that there *is* something wrong with the schools if they followed our principal around for a day. But they would have to revise their list about *what is wrong.* No industry would long show dividends if it limped along with an understaffed plant. Education must cease to be on the defensive with the critics. There *is* something wrong with the schools. Only the American people, through adequate and insightful planning and action, can correct it.

A Populous Metropolitan County [7]

The story in this section relates to some ways in which county supervisors and curriculum directors can function to provide leadership and services for curriculum improvement. The setting is a large and populous metropolitan county comprised of 100 independent school districts. The districts range in size from a two-teacher elementary school district enrolling 25 pupils, to a unified district enrolling more than four hundred thousand students in kindergarten through junior college. Each district is governed by an elected board.

Most of the districts employ an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction or a curriculum director, other personnel in curriculum or supervisory positions and supervising principals. Each of the persons in these positions has both individual and shared responsibilities for curriculum improvement. A few of the districts employ only a principal in a supervisory role.

All districts within the county operate under the provisions of the State Education Code, use state-adopted textbooks in elementary grades, employ teachers who meet credential requirements established by the state board of education and receive basic financial aid guaranteed by the laws of the state. All of the districts receive from the county superintendent of schools certain curriculum coordination services permitted under provisions of the Education Code. Smaller districts, those having fewer than 901 students in average daily attendance, also receive direct supervisory services.

The county office of education involved in this account operates as a service agency that reinforces and supplements the district but does not supplant it. Its two directors of curriculum are known as the director of elementary education and the director of secondary education. Each is concerned with the process of cooperative curriculum development, preparation of materials to facilitate curriculum improvement, testing out innovations, disseminating curriculum procedures and practices and providing for the development and enhancement of leadership for curriculum and supervision. Each is also responsible for organization, administration and staffing arrangements which facilitate the functioning of consultants in elementary and secondary education who are specialists in curriculum development and in working with people in supervisory and consultative relationships. How, then, do these county consultants work with district curriculum directors and supervisors? The answers are many, for no two districts are exactly alike.

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[7] Contributed by Howardine Hoffman, Director, Division of Elementary Education, Office of the Los Angeles County Schools.

Situations Are Appraised. Helping to appraise conditions affecting curriculum and instruction in the small school districts of the county is one of the continuing tasks of a county office consultant working in cooperation with district personnel. For example, results of a recent district-wide testing program revealed significant disparities between the scores of individual students on mental maturity and achievement tests in reading. In studying this situation, the county consultants in research and guidance and the county consultants in elementary education examined the summaries, made an item analysis and formulated hypotheses concerning the possible causes of the below-expectancy results in reading. They made an appointment to discuss the test results with the superintendent and suggested that he invite the principals of the district to join in the conference. The superintendent, principals and county consultants viewed with deep concern the test results and information they subsequently obtained through classroom observation.

Believing that the curriculum in reading was a total school responsibility, the administrators, with the assistance of county consultants, planned ways of involving classroom teachers in the review of test data, in identifying possible causes of low reading scores and in looking at feasible ways of improving children's reading. When several teachers confided their anxieties concerning instructional practices and expressed an interest in observing another teacher as he worked with children in developing word-recognition skills, the superintendent asked the county consultant to make arrangements for such an observation. Observing another teacher and his pupils stimulated questions and study, which led to a proposal by the teachers that there be a series of discussions with the county consultant.

This cooperative appraisal of the situation led to constructive action. Such an appraisal could be accomplished effectively in this and other situations only as county consultants and district personnel have frequent opportunities to work in face-to-face situations, to communicate information, to supplement data, to speculate, to propose alternative plans of action, to consider consequences of each proposal and to evaluate procedures, practices and outcomes. Administrators, teachers and consultants trusted one another and worked with purpose on a problem of mutual concern. They moved quickly from the appraisal of needs to a mutually agreed upon plan for the improvement of instruction in reading.

Curriculum and Instructional Needs Are Defined. In the small elementary school districts the county office of education is authorized under the provisions of the Education Code to render direct supervisory services. In these districts a county consultant who specializes in general supervision and consultants whose primary responsibilities lie in the areas of art, music, health, physical education, industrial arts and science working together constitute a team of resource persons. One member of the team, usually the person having responsibility for general supervision, serves as chairman and assists the district administrator and the faculty in identifying problems or interests upon which they wish to concentrate their efforts. The chairman also works with both the district and county office personnel to schedule types of assistance at times that are likely to be beneficial to districts as well as feasible from the standpoint of the county consultant who also serves numerous other districts. Each consultant, sometimes individually and at times with another person, works with classroom teachers and principals in helping to diagnose the educational needs of the children in the school, in planning curricular opportunities appropriate to meet these needs, in selecting books, films and other instructional aids, and in planning a continuous program of evaluation.

In these schools, county consultants work as a team and with teachers to plan in-service education activities. The consultants often serve as instructors or discussion leaders in meetings and workshops. At other times the consultants may secure the assistance of a visiting specialist.

In city and unified school districts, the county office of education is authorized under provisions of the Education Code to perform specific coordination services. Defining the nature of these activities to the mutual satisfaction and understanding of legislators and of the state department of education, county office and district personnel has been an almost impossible task. County consultants dedicated to the task of improving education find it extremely frustrating, and at times impossible and impractical, to confine their efforts to those services that are specified.

In general, teams of consultants are available to assist these large and often highly organized districts. One member of the team, usually a general consultant specializing in either elementary or secondary education, serves as chairman and coordinates the work of the team. Members of the team work individually or with one or more other county staff members or with district curriculum and instructional personnel in both individual and group conferences.

The purpose of the county office of education is to serve, that is, to aid, to assist, to implement and to facilitate the work of those responsible for leadership at the district level. This being true, there are many ways of working, depending upon the interests, needs, convictions and competencies of the persons involved and upon the nature and direction of the district program.

Curriculum and instructional needs, when identified and defined, give important clues useful in determining what actions may be needed. Looking at alternatives and possible consequences requires time and facilitating resources. The way people work with people is important to the successful fulfillment of any plan for action.

County consultants working as teams may also organize to help districts find practical and appropriate means of implementing new legislation relating to the curriculum. To illustrate: The Education Code requires that each school district provide instruction in a foreign language in grades six, seven and eight beginning not later than September 1965. Every district has responsibility. Therefore, inter-district and even county-wide arrangements have been utilized to facilitate communication and help to eliminate undue duplication of effort in such activities as screening instructional materials, compiling source materials and organizing workshops.

Currently, a county-wide committee on foreign language, comprised of county consultants having competencies in elementary, secondary and audio-visual education, and representative district personnel having similar responsibilities and areas of competence, is serving several functions. A three-member team of county consultants has taken the initiative in getting cooperative work under way.

Some of the ways that the county office team has worked to achieve implementation of the foreign language requirements are these:

Organized and provided leadership for a county-wide curriculum planning committee on foreign language

Identified issues needing to be resolved, examined a variety of alternative proposals, shared information relative to experimental programs and evaluated tapes, recordings, books and other instructional materials

Collected a file of reports of various study committees, research and experimental programs

Organized and provided leadership, with the assistance of the California State Department of Education, for a two-week workshop for district teams comprised of administrative, consultant and teaching personnel having responsibility for organizing a program of foreign language instruction in their respective districts

Compiled a report of the practices discussed by participants in the workshop

Assisted in bringing basic issues and alternative proposals for action to the attention of curriculum personnel of all districts through discussion before a county-wide meeting

Conducted a county-wide survey of current instructional practices and projected plans and shared the findings with districts

Prepared a course of study for foreign language

Aided in evaluating a regional educational television series featuring instruction in Spanish in grades four and five

Communicated to administrators and to citizen groups information about current developments and future needs.

Another illustration may be cited: The expressed concerns of district leadership personnel, reinforced by observations of county office consultants, brought attention to an apparent decline of instruction in the arts in many school districts of the county. Whatever the cause—curtailment of funds for the employment of district supervisors, increased emphasis upon science and mathematics to the sacrifice of the arts, or lack of commitment to the importance of art and music in the development of children and youth—the county staff became aware that these important areas of human activity were being neglected. Hence the questions: Why? What might be some ways of focusing attention upon the importance of the arts? In what ways might districts be helped to reverse the apparent trend? What lessons can be learned from this experience of a gradual decline in attention given to important elements in a balanced curriculum?

Again a county office team comprised of persons having particular competencies in the humanities, the sciences and the arts was created. This team was asked to consider such questions as those listed here and to propose a plan designed to involve district personnel in deciding what needed to be done to change the direction. This procedure was followed and practical results began to appear.

Leadership Sensitivities and Skills Are Developed. Opportunity for district curriculum directors and supervisors to become increasingly knowledgeable and to grow in sensitivity and skill is necessary if they are to function effectively as leaders in curriculum improvement. It has often been said that in-service education of district personnel is the responsibility of both the individual and his district. True as this may be, other agencies such as the state department of education, the county office of education and professional organizations also contribute greatly to the growth of the individual.

The particular county office involved in this account has initiated and co-sponsored numerous activities which have resulted in changed perceptions and behaviors on the part of district curriculum directors and supervisors. As an illustration: Following a half-day conference to consider the place of reading in the lives of kindergarten children, many district supervisors scheduled similar conferences in their own districts. In some instances the help of county consultants was requested. In other situations a tape recording of the major presentations of the county conference was played. In still other cases the district consultant may have checked his plans with interested listeners and invited their reactions.

Evidences of changed perceptions and behaviors were: (a) an immediate thrust toward involving entire faculties and representative parents in reviewing the role of the kindergarten and the place of reading in the lives of children, and (b) a visible change in attitude from one of, "It's too bad that we're being forced to push formal reading in the kindergarten," to an attitude expressed by such statements as, "Let's not just slide into formal reading in the kindergarten without looking at all of the facts. Let's look at what we want our children of kindergarten age to become and then at how this objective can best be accomplished."

In another situation, more than 50 elementary school principals drastically modified their teacher evaluation procedures as a result of an intensive study-discussion-role-playing workshop sponsored by the county office of education and led by county consultants.

It is also equally important that county office directors and consultants extend their knowledge and increase their sensitivities and skills if they are to operate in ways that will stimulate and facilitate changes in the behaviors of other human beings. Numerous activities and opportunities provided by the county office of education are potential sources of new knowledge, new insights and new skills. However, because county consultants, like others in leadership positions, vary in their interests, needs and capacities, each will glean something different from such an activity or experience.

Among the basic ideas that permeate both the planning and evaluation of opportunities for staff growth are these:

The staff grows together. Each is a learner among learners. At times each may be in the role of teacher.

Individual members of the staff identify with other persons whose interests and capacities reinforce and challenge their own.

The role of leader is at times thrust upon an individual by his peers as they elect to identify with the values and views he emulates.

Leadership evolves and may shift from one person to another even within a short period of time. It can be facilitated by the person in a status position.

The competencies of each member of the staff are valued and are utilized by every other member of the staff.

The staff uses its own resources in seeking to keep up-to-date on curriculum innovations.

Frequent interactions of members of the staff with others in the profession are necessary. This involves time to confer with one's associates, to participate in organizational conferences and conventions, to associate with visiting consultants and to know and work with members of the state department of education.

The staff helps to establish priorities and to shift emphasis as new needs arise.

Curriculum improvement is dependent upon people—how they think, what they believe and the ways they work. All that a county consultant does is based upon his conviction of the importance of each individual and upon the professional knowledge and skill which he brings to bear upon his work with people. Professionally competent persons who have deep commitments to education as the means to the achievement of human potential are keys to leadership from the county office of education. Their work is undergirded by efficient administration, a facilitating organizational structure, sound personnel procedures and practices, adequate financing and housing, supplementary and complementary resources, technological equipment and staff and a continuous program of in-service education. These are necessities if the county consultant (the supervisor and curriculum director) is to fulfill his responsibilities of leadership.

Two-Year Program of Self-Study Conducted by a County[8]

"Why a self-study program?" was the first question to be answered. The leadership team, including the superintendent, general supervisors, supervisors of special areas such as music, art, physical education and libraries, and 26 elementary school principals worked together to provide a framework and climate in which all personnel might cooperate to initiate and conduct a self-study.

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[8] Prepared by Madeline Tripp, Supervisor, Elementary Education, Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina.

Utilization of State Publications. The first step was to provide every teacher with the publication, *Standards for Accreditation of Elementary Schools,* a guide from the North Carolina State Department of Education, and *Guide to Evaluation of Elementary Schools,* a publication of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. These publications were studied and individual schools made the decision as to whether or not they wished to participate in the study. The procedures followed are listed here:

1. Identification of areas of need through a thorough analysis of what was being done for children in relation to the accepted standards and in terms of what was thought should be done to meet the needs of children.

   a. Individual teachers wrote their philosophy, goals and objectives, and committees compiled these statements into a school philosophy.

   b. Practices were analyzed in terms of the accepted school philosophy.

      (1) Strengths were identified

      (2) Areas needing improvement were selected

      (3) Plans for improvement were made on a short-range basis including the changes that could be accomplished with little or no additional personnel or finances

      (4) Long-range plans for improvement were made, including changes requiring additional personnel and funds.

   c. Comprehensive studies were made in broad areas:

      (1) Administration: school policy, organization, record keeping, finance and relationships

      (2) Community background and needs

      (3) Curriculum: subjects taught, scope and sequence in skills, provision for individual differences through differentiation of expectations and materials, evaluation of achievement and ability, grouping for instruction

      (4) Materials and equipment: variety of supplementary books, adequate library facilities, audio-visual materials

      (5) Physical plant and environment

      (6) School-community interaction.

All teachers in each of the participating schools worked together and committees were appointed to keep a written record of methods of procedure and information gathered in each of the broad areas of study. The two-year study proved so helpful that it is now a continuing study kept up as an on-going program.

The Effect of Self Study. Some significant changes have occurred as a result; the most outstanding ones are the following:

1. Recognition by all participants that continuous reevaluation of practices in terms of children's needs, interests and abilities is necessary in an effective instructional program.

2. Recognition of differences in ability, needs and interests and of efforts to provide for these differences through differentiation of materials, assignments and expectations.

3. Study of the community to be served by the school has provided valuable information for determining curriculum offerings to meet local needs.

4. Patterns of classroom organization have been examined and grouping within the classroom to provide for individual differences in talents and abilities is being practiced to a commendable degree.

5. Greater emphasis is being placed on the use of supplementary materials such as audio-visual aids and books other than basal texts.

6. The elementary library is being used to a greater degree as an extension to the classroom instructional program. Each school has a central library and a trained librarian, full-time or part-time, depending on the school size.

7. Increased interest and emphasis are being shown in encouraging creative expression by children in music, art and writing.

8. More opportunities are being afforded for children to participate in planning and evaluation of activities; greater emphasis is being placed on responsible citizenship.

9. Recognition has increased regarding the necessity for more and better in-service programs to provide information and ideas to help teachers do a professional job.

10. More attention is being given to the results of standardized tests in diagnosing instructional needs.

11. Frequent evaluation by all concerned is now being practiced and adjustments are being made based on such findings. Teachers are now asking: "Am I doing the job I would like to do? If not, what is keeping me from doing my best? What can I do about changing this condition? Who can help me?"

Curriculum and In-service Education Designs[9]

One important contribution of county offices is that of promoting continuity between elementary and secondary school systems. Ventura County, for example, has K-6 and K-8 elementary school districts, 3- and 4-year high school districts, and unified K-12 school districts. Continuity is promoted in a variety of ways. Inter-district in-service education committees help to provide liaison between districts. Several K-12 curriculum development committees, sponsored by the county office, necessitate close cooperative endeavor between elementary and secondary districts. Moreover, a variety of specially created interdistrict committees cope with particular problems in curriculum design such as the following: Oral-aural approach to foreign language, the movement toward modern mathematics, development of a linguistic base for teaching English, and promotion of the conceptual framework for teaching social studies developed by the California State Department of Education.

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[9] Contributed by Louis J. Rubin, Consultant, Secondary Education, Office of the Ventura County Schools, Ventura, California.

In addition, the county office directs a considerable degree of attention to the in-service education of administrators; wherever the issues are common to both the elementary and secondary scene, both participate. As a result, elementary school administrative personnel have developed over a period of time a clearer understanding of administrative problems in the secondary school. Secondary administrators likewise have developed greater sophistication regarding the elementary school.

Preparation of Curriculum Material. The county organization has a significant role to play in instigating preparation of teacher resource material when a need is identified. In education a deep hiatus often exists between the theoretical efforts of the research scholar and the implementation of these efforts in the actual field. The county office can help to establish an effective bridge between the two. As a case in point, during the past four years, the Ventura County office has developed two resource guides to assist the teacher in developing techniques for enhancing pupils' creativeness. The office is currently involved in assembling a portfolio of teaching models and techniques which will serve as the nucleus for a third publication. When a number of diverse factors made it imperative for schools to elaborate their programs in teaching about communism, the county office prepared a general resource guide and a volume on significant concepts to help fill the gap in the professional literature.

Obviously there is more to in-service education than the preparation of printed materials. Invariably the production of resource guides must be accompanied by complementary activities which expand teacher background and which clarify the conditions for their effective use. In the instance of creativity, for example, men like Donald MacKinnon, Sidney Hook, Aldous Huxley, Milton Rokeach, S. I. Hayakawa and J. P. Guilford worked with Ventura County teachers. A similar list could be cited for the series of in-service programs dealing with teaching about communism.

To illustrate a venture now in progress, attention has recently focused on augmented programs of vocational education. The county office is undertaking a program which will involve four or five large-scale workshops, many clinics designed to encourage the development of vocational education in individual schools, the preparation of an introductory curriculum for vocational education and a sequence of experiences aimed toward familiarizing vocational teachers with the contemporary work scene.

Action Research, a Leadership Technique. A word regarding what used to be called action research is in order. Wherever the process of education is practiced, a significant need exists to quest for the better way, to seek improvement beyond the prevailing standard. Inherent in the notion of educational leadership is a need for continual shattering of the complacency which tends to result from long experience. Toward this end, a number of in-service ventures have been directed toward the experienced teacher. Prestige, stature and publicity are useful commodities when they are used with integrity and can do much to revive those who may be weary. The county office has periodically sponsored a number of seminars for experienced teachers, designed to permit the informal exchange of new teaching approaches. One teacher is often the best medium for changing the behavior of another; and our policy has been to capitalize upon distinguished effort wherever it is found.

Colleges and universities in the area have regularly been prevailed upon to provide extension courses, carrying academic credit, which are tailored to the needs of a particular segment of the teaching profession. Whenever possible, a practicing teacher has served as instructor. We have sought to counteract a tendency in education to regard as acceptable whatever seems to pass, by encouraging an on-going, teacher-directed search for something better. Such a search can be rewarding, contagious and fashionable. The mechanics for encouraging experimentation consist primarily of motivation of one sort or another, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, and of recognition of successful effort. We have found it profitable to combine such recognition with procedures which expose others to the results.

In-service Education of Secondary School Teachers. Recent trends in the in-service education of secondary school teachers reflect several definitive departures from the past. First, a considerable degree of in-service activity is now directed toward upgrading both the teacher's sophistication in special subject matter and his liberal education.

Second, James B. Conant's notion of the "clinical professor" is receiving some attention, in that skilled teachers are now being asked to provide leadership by sharing with other teachers in an organized in-service education program.

Third, in-service education activities which are geared toward improving the teacher's command of methods center upon introducing to him relatively new, at least to the experienced teacher, procedures. Some of these are inquiry training and time devoted to encouraging teachers to undertake new approaches, on a trial basis, with the aim of assessing their usefulness. Since this imposes an extra burden upon the teacher, much effort to support and motivate is required. Moreover, it is necessary continuously to guard against unwarranted enthusiasm for something which is different but which may not be better. Various teachers have been involved in trial runs with facets of team teaching, self-directed learning, modification adapted to the unique potential of summer school and the development of creativeness. Such small scale attempts to validate the effectiveness of highly advertised schemes are of benefit to the local scene as well as to the profession in general.

The Gap Between Learning Theory and Teaching Practice. One other role of leadership is perhaps worth mentioning. Traditionally a deep gulf has existed between practice in the classroom and theory. At a time when speculative conjectures are rampant, the need for bridging the gulf becomes even more crucial. As a consequence, some effort has been devoted to procuring the services of individuals who have a special aptitude for translating and clarifying the theoretical speculations of Bruner, Torrance, Taba, Suchman, Schwab and others, into a form that makes ready sense to the teacher who must actually deal with students. In certain instances we have capitalized upon teachers who have an interest in scholarly analysis and theory, along with broad practical knowledge; elsewhere, we have utilized the services of college and university personnel and supervisors who have a realistic appreciation of the demands of the classroom.

Improvement of Curriculum in Small Districts. Effective curriculum leadership is a problem in smaller school districts because of obvious limitations in staff. Various devices are used to compensate: Leadership responsibility is sometimes given to competent teachers; the services of supervisory personnel in larger districts are often used; the available supervisory staff is encouraged to develop more breadth and greater versatility than might ordinarily be necessary; and great emphasis is placed on self-directed teacher growth, teaching through discovery, conceptual teaching and the proper use of teaching technology.

A somewhat growing problem is that many teachers who prepared for teaching sufficiently long ago, now require specific opportunity to come abreast of the changing times. Moreover, teachers differ markedly in their needs. As a consequence, a number of exploratory attempts have been made to individualize in-service education: that is, to identify the specific needs of an individual teacher and to meet them in whatever way is most feasible. Sometimes, when the needs are common, they are dealt with in groups. At other times, when the needs are unique, in-service arrangements may be made to provide for a single teacher.

Motivation continues to be a problem. Often the teachers who are in most need of learning seem least inclined toward self-improvement. In an attempt to solve this problem, various devices, some formal and some informal, have been used to stimulate interest. In candor, however, it must be admitted that leadership, in too large a number of instances, has failed to motivate.

A marked tendency has been noted to move from in-service activities, consisting of only one session, to more sustained programs. For example, a political scientist from the University of California, Santa Barbara, will work throughout the next academic year with a group of 15 social studies teachers. Presumably the interaction will enlighten both the teachers and the political scientist. The use of a specialist, either in methods or content, working intensively with a small group of people over a prolonged period, is repeated many times in the total in-service education structure.

Curriculum Innovations. Several new approaches to curriculum development have also been initiated in Ventura County. With the substantial amount of curriculum innovation taking place throughout the county, it is obvious that some things will prove more useful than others.

The experienced classroom teacher is perhaps in the best position to evaluate realistically the effectiveness of new programs and procedures. Accordingly, considerable leadership comes through the cooperative efforts of classroom teachers.

Significantly, a much heavier reliance on the administrative staff, particularly principals and vice-principals, is necessary, than is normally the case in larger districts. As a consequence, in-service activity is directed toward developing the curriculum leadership of principals as well as toward increasing their understanding of instructional problems. In this regard it is notable that the upgrading of supervisors and administrators is sometimes more pressing than the upgrading of teachers.

Incorporating and Coping with Change—Secondary [10]

What happens when the roles described by Shafer and Mackenzie become guidelines for real persons embroiled in actual situations? When the issues identified by Van Til and the decisions delineated by Sand are confronted in real situations? Effective curriculum leadership operates within a matrix of many facets which include:

Local challenges and realities of decision making
Professional and societal pressures
An educational structure with roles and responsibilities
Concerns for impact and consequent behavior of pupils
Few or many persons affected by the change.

These and other elements must be considered in the situation. A patchwork of innovations, an ingenious restructuring of staff or facilities, or the embracing of undigested media does not constitute educational leadership. At some point, however, the crucial elements must be converged into a particular situation; they must be reshaped into a very particular action.

Emphasis upon the Individual

In an era of change there are persons moving with courage and imagination. A significant challenge of this century has been to develop procedures and materials to individualize instruction. Automation, base-two thinking, mass media and super-organization are further evidence of the need for the encouragement of individuality and the facilitation of individualized instruction. Attention has been given to the gifted and talented, the alienated and disaffected, and the exceptional learner. Significantly, the learning problems of the average student have not been adequately researched.

Insights Regarding the Individual. In many ways, relatively little is known about the educational problems of average students, or how best to deal with the "average" student as an individual. A district in southern California wondered why a majority of these pupils had only limited rather than "average" achievement. Noteworthy is the fact that their immediate step was not to turn to team teaching, to the nongraded school, to flexible scheduling, or to any special brand of biology for relief; they turned first to a penetrating diagnosis of their situation, and only later to the potential inherent in current trends. Moreover, they borrowed, with considerable sagacity, a research device from the physical sciences—*they experimented from an unreal rather than a real base.*

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[10] Leslee J. Bishop compiled the material for this section of Chapter Five with the assistance of: Louis J. Rubin, Consultant, Secondary Education, Office of the Ventura County Schools, Ventura, California; Paul Klohr, Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus; and Bernice Roberts, Associate Professor of Education, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

In short, they assumed that if they experimented from a realistic setting (in this instance one teacher to 34 students, limited facilities, and a somewhat below-average budget), their vision would be fettered by practical requirements. If, on the other hand, they experimented from an unrealistic, an ideal, setting (three teachers to 30 students, an abundant learning environment, and a lavish budget), some of their results would indeed be useless in the actual scene, but bits of ideas, here and there, might be exportable—of considerable value in regular practice. Through this strategy, insights were gained which otherwise might not have been evident.

Thirty ninth-grade pupils were scheduled into a seven-week summer course labeled "Summer Studies in Success." Each student was in the middle range of the intelligence distribution and each had an average academic record of C or lower. Three teachers, sharing teaching, recording, observing, interpreting and counseling functions, were assigned to the group, devoting two hours daily to the class, and two hours daily to a summary and interpretation of the day's events. They planned jointly and pooled their collective judgment toward a sort of consensus on the implications of observed events. Out of this mystique, this painstaking effort to observe and understand, to analyze and interpret the consequences of day-by-day phenomena, came an unsuspected windfall of promising practices. There came also a better understanding of the process of innovation. It became clear, for example, *that when a teacher has direct knowledge of the consequences of his instructional decisions, it is much easier for him to make such decisions.* It was evident, as another example, *that a teacher may teach and a student may learn, but what the individual student learns may be quite different from what the teacher teaches.*

Other generalizations emerged:

1. The average student tends to be vague about his educational objectives, about his commitment to learning and about his vocational objectives.

2. Even well-trained counselors have difficulty in communicating with the average student because of the student's verbal limitations and the nondescript values which characterize his attitude toward school.

3. Communication, in the teaching act, must be deliberately geared

toward the average student, who tends to make only a moderate effort to comprehend whatever is unclear.

4. The average pupil prefers to let the more intellectually able student exert leadership in the school situation, but will assume leadership himself if it is demanded and if the teacher provides patient support.

5. The average student seems to develop values from literal situations better than he does from reading or from listening to inspirational talk.

6. Repetition is of great importance in teaching the average student.

7. Whereas above-average students are somewhat self-generating and display relatively high initiative, the average student tends to achieve his potential only under consistent and sustained motivation.

8. Many average students, despite their ability to reason, find thinking a waste of time unless they can see almost immediate benefit or application.

9. The average student tends to fear failure, ridicule and blame to a much greater extent than do more capable learners.

These generalizations are cited not so much because they are earth-shattering in their vision or newness, but because they illustrate the benefits which derive from a simple effort to try different things, to focus directly upon individuals and to appraise the results closely.

Carried on under the direction of the assistant superintendent, the essential purpose of the project was to develop a rationale for dealing with average students in the classroom. Perhaps of more importance, the purpose was also that of developing, through a significant in-service venture, three teachers with special competence for working with average learners. Thus, the district created its own "experts," blending theory with practice. It is now in a position to infect other teachers with its initial germ, and to refine its insights through application.

Individualization of Instruction

In contrast to developing generalizations to help in the understanding and instruction of individuals, is the school system which reported the use of programed textbooks, one rapidly developing aspect of automation, as a means of individualizing instruction. In this project, programed materials were used as remedial, supplemental and enrichment aids. A major purpose was to explore the possibilities of programed instruction in several content areas with any number of pupils who would voluntarily participate—which ranged from two individuals in some classes to as many as two-thirds of a class group.

The project was developed by a school system with the assistant superintendent for instruction as the only central office resource available to the secondary schools. There were psychologists, speech correctionists and visiting teachers as part of a limited special services staff, but their participation was minimal. For this project a coordinator of programed instruction was appointed and this enterprise was his only responsibility. He worked with all grade levels and in all content areas; involved were pupils from one high school and three junior high schools. Pupils ranged in grade level from seven through twelve, and in ability levels an even greater spread was evident. For a small district, this appointment represented a bold step, hopefully working toward an area where further study and resources would be essential.

A significant aspect of the project was the curriculum and individual problems analysis made by the coordinator prior to the use of the programed materials. Teachers were asked to identify the chief learning problems of all students as well as of particular individuals. These needs were reviewed in terms of their relationship to the content objectives of the various secondary courses. Finally, programed materials were obtained and analyzed to see which, if any, met the criteria of individual, class and content needs. Surprisingly, many programed items were found to be appropriate.

The Development of the Self-learner. Some priority was given to those pupils who demonstrated learning or motivational problems. Their voluntary cooperation was then sought and obtained in almost all cases. Pupils used the materials in class where this seemed appropriate, in study halls, in after and before class sessions, and sometimes in individually arranged times and places. In cases of enrichment especially, the regular classroom teachers provided the related instruction and supplied the programed materials; reading teachers did so when this seemed appropriate, and direct and regular instruction of the "reluctant learner" was provided on a small group or tutorial basis.

Significantly, pupil interest has remained high throughout the two years of the project. This was attributed to the personal interest of the coordinator in each pupil and each program; the careful analysis made prior to the use of materials; the cooperation, knowledge of the programs and participation of the regular classroom teachers; and to the range of ability and interests of the students involved. No one was quarantined or segregated; no onus existed because of the range from acceleration to remedial; voluntary withdrawal always presented an "out" to those involved. Another bonus attributed to the project was the evident satisfaction and increased self-esteem of those who took part and their increased ability to proceed as self-learners. Success experiences were emphasized, and pupils were involved in programs appropriate to their ability.

It was intended that a more scientific research base would be provided for further work and before the project was significantly expanded. County personnel helped teachers in schools and departments to identify class and content characteristics, and to relate these elements to the larger objectives of the school and the more particular objectives of a given teacher and classroom, and with research and statistical measures. The success at individualizing so many situations gave promise of other possibilities and of other materials, and heartened those who had experienced another means by which the secondary schools could go much further with instruction geared to individual needs.

Building Unit Administrators as Curriculum Leaders

Principals are instructional leaders; so reads the literature. Experience and research attest to their strategic role in curriculum development. Where principals are informed, competent and enthusiastic about encouraging innovation or implementing local or system-wide projects, results are quickly discernible. Where local building and central supervisory staff members cooperate in the extension of their roles and where a closer instructionally-oriented relationship exists, significant results are likely.

System-wide Curriculum Roles for Building Administrators. One midwestern community, caught in the midst of the population explosion and the move to the suburbs, was also faced with the fact that the citizens would not support a central office staff adequate to the burgeoning needs and population. A decision was made to concentrate on the local building leadership, to give full support to building principals, to strengthen the role of department chairmen and other local leadership roles, and to use more effectively the administrative personnel, including assistant principals, as integral parts of the "division of instruction" in curriculum matters. Principals and assistant principals were charged with the responsibility of being "administrative representatives" to system-wide curriculum study and instructional materials committees.

Working with these groups on a consulting and coordinating basis was the general coordinator whose limited time was thus extended by the effective working groups which had been established. The Steering Committee for High School Science Instruction included in its membership an assistant principal, the science department chairmen from the two high schools and two science teachers from each high school. Junior high school representation was included from time to time as perspective, program articulation or skill and content sequences were reviewed. Among the concerns of the Science Steering and Coordinating Committee were the following:

Development of new courses and approaches

Effective implementation and evaluation of pilot sections in the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, the Physical Science Study Committee and the Chemical Education Materials Study

Review of standardized testing as it related to science achievement

Improvement of laboratory facilities and extension of laboratory use

Improvement of science courses for slow learners; introduction of advanced placement courses for advanced students

Review of significant developments that had implications for science instruction and methods.

Reports of these and similar committees were circulated among all the administrators as well as to the central office staff members.

Priorities within the system also suggested the need for study and for a Steering Committee in the Language Arts. The committee included, as "facilitator," a high school assistant principal whose experience and training had been in English and journalism. After a review of research and the inevitable introspection about role and function, this group began work through subcommittees of teachers in the following projects:

A pilot study to improve and increase student writing through the aid of dictating machines (for teacher comments) and secretarial help

A review of developments in structural linguistics, with representatives attending NCTE institutes; invited speakers, examination of developed course materials and research reports

Participation in the development of a cross-departmental humanities course

Workshop and graduate credit course offerings in reading and in the humanities

Survey of the senior high school writing program and recommendations for next steps in the development of an improved sequence.

As with the Science Steering Committee, this group reported regularly to the Curriculum Council of each of the high schools. Since principals and assistant principals were involved, the workings of these committees became integral to the school management concerns that now included more curriculum matters.

The facilitating and coordinating functions of the limited central office staff were thus implemented by building-based personnel. Together they studied problems of significance to them and developed procedures compatible to their particular situation. They participated in the establishment and achievement of goals, and felt their responsibility for communication, harmony and progress.

The Development and Utilization of Building Leadership. Other school systems reported similar developments. One small, poorly financed, seacoast community became concerned about the patchwork of its junior high school courses and the inadequacy of their coordination with the senior high school. This community developed a two-year *curriculum-change* seminar for principals before any significant developments were attempted. Meeting regularly with the superintendent, who had become alarmed at the inadequacy of the program, by the lack of support at the building level, and by the absence of curriculum persons or roles, these principals studied curriculum developments, procedures and strategies of curriculum change. Outside persons with specialized skills in curriculum organization, or with experience in introducing significant innovations were brought in for one-day orientation sessions. Pilot projects were then developed in schools where personnel and facilities made them most feasible. In many cases equipment and local personnel were shared and principals became resource persons in the curriculum areas where they were sponsoring an innovation or change. In this atmosphere of mutual interest, limited but solid progress was achieved, and a significantly different professional atmosphere became evident.

Participation in a Central Steering Committee. A third pattern of pyramid flattening and curriculum leadership by building administrators was described by an eastern school system. In this situation secondary schools were being inundated by hundreds of new arrivals each year; a third large high school was being built before the second high school class was graduated, and a 900 pupil junior high school was erected every 18 months. In such a situation, the curriculum council could not keep informed, much less keep ahead of the range and variety of projects; new administrators could not keep abreast of the curriculum developments or procedures; there was continuous pressure for administrative alternatives and decisions and for identification of program and building needs. The central office staff was likewise unable to keep pace with in-service needs, materials, study and research developments.

The three high school principals, along with the assistant superintendent for instruction, and the coordinator of secondary education, were constituted as the Steering Committee for high school curriculum matters. Meetings were held for half a day twice a month, appropriate study committees were established with assistant principals, department chairmen and representative teachers assuming leadership and participating roles. Reports of such committee activity were considered regular agenda matters of each building, and long-range schedules, committee charges and reports became matters of "routine" business for the local schools. Affirmative decisions made by this Steering Committee were put into effect in the individual buildings or forwarded directly to the superintendent as such action was appropriate. Negative decisions were referred back for study to department committees or to system-wide groups working with the central office staff and a representative of the Steering Committee. It was clear to all where the responsibility lay for most decisions regarding curriculum and how to proceed with further action.

Principals assumed roles related, in part, to their own areas of competence in content fields and in project leadership. They felt closer and more directly related to substantive and content developments. Building staffs affected by changes were intimately and directly involved in the decision-making process as new ideas were introduced and examined. Regular patterns for review and evaluation were established and goals and purposes were clarified and applied in concert. Differences among building staffs and administrators were clarified and utilized in organizing projects and procedures. Thus, the principals and the central office staff together implemented the desirable but seldom achieved situation wherein building principals truly became instructional leaders.

Improvement of Curriculum in Small Districts

The development of instructional leadership becomes important in small districts where finances or numbers do not justify supporting of supervisory personnel. Obvious staff limitations make unlikely the provision of supervisors and curriculum innovators. Various devices, such as the following, are used to compensate for such limitations:

Leadership responsibility is sometimes given to competent teachers:
    - Teaching demonstrations, or individual teacher pilot projects
    - "Team teaching" in particular areas using skilled teachers as leaders.

Services of supervisory personnel in larger districts are often used for:
    - Statistical assistance for research project
    - Consultants for development in newer curriculum areas or innovations
    - Identifying leadership in the area for special programs or resource help.

The available supervisory staff is encouraged to develop more breadth and greater versatility than might ordinarily be necessary:

    Science, mathematics, industrial arts coordinator as single role
    Counseling, cooperative training placement as single role.

Emphasis is placed upon individual growth:
    Institute attendance with subsequent reporting and discussion
    Film saturation project with help from company representatives.

Cooperative projects using university personnel:
    As specialists for intensive projects
    As generalists for a review of broad implications of some problem.

Bases for Priorities and the Improvement of Decision Making

Chapter Two of this yearbook deals with the importance of intelligent decision making and with its significant and immediate effect upon the schools. Both special responsibility and vulnerability accompany this task. As change accelerates, as the impact of a given decision becomes swifter and more direct, the supervisor must be more concerned about the ripple effect and the possible backwash of feeling as the decision-wave moves outward.

Curriculum persons must be willing to study the newer mechanical devices and the likelihood of their standardizing and mechanizing many procedures and data. Rather than lament this encroachment how much better to participate in the planning, so that the human elements can be retained, and so that the routine and standardized operations can be relegated to equipment. Decisions require information, a framework for focus and instruments for implementation. Decisions of high quality require careful evaluation of possible consequences, awareness of a school's resources and personnel, and insight into avenues of appropriate action leading to favorable response.

Systems Approach to Information Flow and Decision Making. New approaches and new potentialities are part of the changing scene in educational planning and decision making. One development was reported by several large school systems. In these systems, rapidly growing numbers and increasing complexity required the use of newer and more experimental devices, such as a computer and electronic data processing. Such facilities make available great quantities of rapidly produced information, reflecting directly the input of information and the nature of the questions being asked. However, quantities of information are not always the key to better information flow or to improved decision making. To produce the desired facts, to structure and to distribute these effectively requires intensive study, answering hundreds of small procedural and significantly strategic questions.

One district, with a student population of 35,000, and with three high schools and eight junior high schools, took steps to move quickly but carefully. One staff member of the Division of Instruction, who had worked closely with the area of educational technology, was appointed Coordinator of Electronic Data Processing and made a special assistant to the superintendent. The procurement of an IBM 1440 computer was anticipated as two years away. Bold steps were taken, in anticipation of this event, to improve the structure, quality and flow of information and the quality of decision making throughout the system.

First, an educational base was provided. This included initiating a series of seminars in electronic data processing for all the administrative staff, acquainting them with the problems and potentialities of use of a computer. A total *systems approach* was applied to the intricacies of a large school system. In addition to technical information about data processing itself, consideration was given to research, to areas of common purpose and commitment. Standardized procedures and elements were identified, as were areas of uniqueness, and of individual decision and action. Study was given to the consequences of the impact of change, of the nature of information input and output, of the role of values and alternatives, and of the relationship of the total educational function to community expectations and capabilities. Schedules for the change and lines of communication flow were established.

Involvement of Professional Personnel. Concomitant action involved teachers and other personnel. Committees were established to study the implications for *instruction* of electronic data processing in business education, science and mathematics, as well as in industrial arts and social studies. Workshops were provided for teachers of business education, mathematics and science, and provision was made for them to participate in various aspects of actual computer use. Counselors met to review procedures and implications in the standardized testing program, in scheduling, record keeping and reporting to parents. Experimentation was done with volunteer pupils in COBOL (Common Business Oriented Language)—computer language taught through a programed unit. Study was made of vocational implications, the influence on content areas, the use in instruction and the development of introductory materials for pupils. In short, the whole school system was involved in the anticipated change.

One of the most difficult aspects of this development was the attempt to calculate the impact of this change on decision making and the flow of information both to and from the decision maker or makers. Many procedures were shown to require decision only where standard procedures or policies had not been previously developed. Some areas required information, with no process apparently available to supply it; other areas had an overabundance of information, and a cutback in the quantity of data could be recommended.

Defining Boundaries and Responsibilities. A major part of the design was the spelling out of the functions and responsibilities of administrative and curriculum persons. As boundaries were delineated, it became clear that certain roles were logical in a design but not in the actual situation. This required a change in role or in placement in the structure. As work-flow between organizational components was visualized, duplications or gaps in the decision-making function became clarified.

Only significant activities were so examined. The network of systems and subsystems strained some relationships, relieved others. Compromises and new decisions were made regarding the role or function of given individuals. Each question opened a whole universe of subquestions to be answered. The importance of generally held objectives and goals was highlighted. For example, curriculum decisions were shown to reside ultimately in the office of the superintendent, but operationally with the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, in the principals as a collective group, and as building instructional leaders.

This was not surprising but it clarified the staff relationship of division of instruction personnel and facilitated the flow and improvement of curriculum decisions. It was now more evident who was responsible for what; and why and where to provide information essential to answering such questions as: Who does what, for whom, and in what form; who makes the decisions at what points, and what happens when the answer is "no" as well as when it is "yes"; how do teachers, curriculum persons, administrators and business functions relate to this process; and what are the agencies or organizations that are responsible?

Many aspects of this systems approach did not result in improvement since so many variables existed, but the areas of clarification were significant. Consequent implementation required considerable time for acceptance or success. The electronic elements were secondary to decision making and the effectiveness of each of the interrelated parts of the system.

Stated Procedures for Change. How to relate to the decision-making process has been the subject of bulletins issued by most of the large suburban or metropolitan city systems. Various situations are usually specified: procedure for introducing curriculum changes operational in other school systems; introduction of curriculum change through experimentation; or the elimination of courses or programs in the curriculum. In each of these situations the supervisors, the reports, the offices or councils, were delineated so that systematic modification or change could be effected with a minimum of turbulence.

Such guidelines and suggestions for procedure are usually accompanied by descriptions of offices, roles and committees involved in curriculum decision making or course and curriculum development. All such outlines of procedure recognize the many changes that are outside the jurisdiction of the superintendent or the local board of education. Likewise, they recognize that within a given system the ultimate authority for curriculum change policies is the board. While such information cannot report the dynamics of curriculum change, it does help teachers, supervisors and principals to understand and cooperate with channels and procedures necessarily involved in any significant change.

Staff Development Through Improved Communication

The supervisory staff of a large or progressive school system has a responsibility to facilitate communication regarding the many and varied projects under way. Curriculum councils help, but they have time limitations; board of education members become impatient with the many requests for changes when there appears to be no discernible pattern to them; principals wonder how projects in their building relate to those in others; systemwide committees find themselves duplicating work done previously or by other groups operating concurrently; bulletins are not read. The "management" and communication of information become essential to morale, progress and professional growth.

Faced with these problems, the supervisory staff of a large school system took stock. A lot of things were happening, many persons were involved, there were many reports and recommendations. Yet there were also many complaints. What happened to the requests of the previous year? Why was it not possible to study new textbooks in language arts this year? Why was the administration persisting in its requirement that certain standardized tests be given at the seventh and eighth grade levels? And so it went.

A Visual Analysis and Report. After some discussion among supervisors, the staff decided to prepare visual materials that would facilitate communication, help suggest patterns, priorities and emphases. Such questions as these were asked: What does curriculum development look like? What color is it? What shape or dimension does it have? Can it be delineated symbolically and, if so, how can development or activity be communicated to those unfamiliar with process, technique or content? How can one indicate the extent of the written record, the role of personnel? What of pilot projects just under way, of long term developments in stages of precision, or of the multitudinous segments and pieces that constitute curriculum activity?

Working with the director of the audio-visual department, the staff produced a series of transparencies. The base transparency listed all the courses taught in the secondary schools. Departments were indicated in the left hand margin; from left to right were the titles of courses listed by grades 7-12. Many courses were omitted because not all the grouping and special project classes were listed.

The nature of each project and the developmental aspects were shown on various overlays by a series of geometric figures and by use of color. A triangle superimposed upon a course title or departmental area indicated a pilot project; an oval indicated a steering or study committee in some area; a circle was the symbol for textbook or instructional materials investigation; a square, for an organization or media project; a rectangle, for system-wide projects; and a hexagon, for research investigations. Thus, these various shapes indicated the nature of projects under way in course, grade level or departmental areas. However, to indicate the nature of the project did not tell enough of the story, so *colors* were used to indicate the *stage* of development: green geometric shapes indicated activities in the initiation stage; yellow figures indicated projects in the tryout and experimentation stage; red, implementation and diffusion; and blue, refinement or evaluation.

Identification of In-service Needs. As the various transparencies were used with different groups, the staff could see where the emphasis for a given year would be, and also where and why resource and consultant staff would be concentrated. As projects such as the new mathematics were initiated, the staff could see that teachers needed instruction, encouragement and materials. When foreign language and electronic laboratories were to be installed, in-service and consultant help in their use was obtained. Likewise, as courses or departments changed emphasis from one stage to another, the needs for in-service education became more evident because of the visualized analysis.

Procedures for Reporting Curriculum Development and Super-

visory Roles. The materials produced by the staff have become a regular part of the curriculum development reports of this school system. Further modifications have made the idea useful in additional ways, such as the following:

Report to the board of education regarding activities under way, the roles and responsibilities of the supervisory staff in the various projects, and their relationship to certain curriculum decisions

Report to the Curriculum Advisory Council to enable the new members to get an overview of the range of activity, and to show how the Council could relate to areas of priority or need

Discussion for the County Curriculum Directors indicating the configuration of projects in a particular system

Assistance to the Lay Advisory Council interested in new buildings and the facilities and staff that might be required.

Other items were subsequently used with the base transparency for the following purposes:

To indicate recommended in-service projects and production needs—such as for course guides

By encircling certain titles, to indicate to parents the various courses, required and elective, taken by pupils with contrasting abilities and aspirations and to show how these related to college or vocational plans.

These transparencies have been used with great effectiveness and illustrate one kind of communication device. Along with the usual forms of transmitting information, such reporting is essential in school systems where a sincere attempt is being made to introduce new practices and innovations, yet at the same time to maintain balance and perspective. In a time when events in Europe can be seen live via TV, when Telstar and its Comsat successors could bring programs by native speakers to language classes or live history to the social studies classes, communication should be more effective than it now is in most schools or school systems.

Utilizing "Structure" To Cope with New Knowledge

Much of what is taught is literally no longer true. The dramatic onrush of new knowledge creates a greater gap between the producers and the consumers of knowledge, between the generalist and the specialist, between those who attempt to move in accordance with new knowledge and those who would cling to "conventional wisdom." To know, to structure, to relate, to understand—these are the imperatives. What is the important knowledge to know, how is it best ordered and produced, how does it relate to other knowledge, and does it contribute to perspective and understanding? What base gives cohesion and meaning?

Use of the structure of the separate disciplines has been described elsewhere in this yearbook; success has been most evident in the areas of mathematics and science. Structure also is defined as the *basic concepts* that undergird a given area of knowledge. How to teach these concepts; to introduce pupils to the mode of inquiry that will best show how new ideas and information can be discovered and related; how to organize opportunities for experiences and to produce related materials; and how to evaluate progress toward these ends—are all challenges for the teacher and the curriculum worker.

One school system became alerted to the fact that growing specialization and mass of detail were making it more and more difficult for teachers in the social studies department to consider substantive matters as a group; that many requests were being made for new courses in order to include the new knowledge and developments; that as a new high school had been built, an even greater fragmentation had occurred; that articulation with the feeder junior high schools was inadequate; and that there seemed to be fewer commonalities through which central office and the local school departments could work together. Thus, faced with the evident need, the Curriculum Steering Committee took steps to improve the situation.

Procedures for Considering the Structure. A social studies coordinating committee was established. This committee was composed of a senior high school principal, an administrative intern, the social studies department chairmen from the two high schools and two teachers from each school. Central office representation was provided by the subject area coordinator who worked in the English and social studies areas. After two meetings, which sought to identify the problems and add some dimension to them, a one-week planning session was provided during the summer under the leadership of the central office coordinator. Two more teachers from each school were invited to participate. During this week the workshop group accomplished the following:

Reviewed significant developments in the various "sub" disciplines of the social studies

Studied professional materials such as books on teaching the social studies, and publications of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development[11] and the National Council for the Social Studies

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[11] Especially helpful was: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Using Current Curriculum Developments.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1963.

Considered alternative approaches to curriculum change in social studies

Appraised the staff situation in terms of problems, areas of resistance and likely courses of action.

One outcome of the workshop was the decision to use the *Guide to Content in the Social Studies*[12] as the vehicle both for study of the program and for focusing the attention of all social studies teachers upon the major content structure, or the 14 recurring themes identified in the book. Representative among these themes were such items as:

Recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual
Recognition and understanding of world interdependence
Achieving a balance between social stability and social change
The use of intelligence to improve human living.

As the school year got under way, the principal acted as chairman, the administrative intern as executive secretary to the group, and one of the department chairmen assumed the role of recorder. A rationale was developed by the department chairmen to explain how and why theme consideration was appropriate for study and investigation by all teachers. Joint departmental meetings between the schools were planned under departmental leadership and the objectives were further clarified. Among objectives were the following:

To develop common language and acceptance of social studies as a whole, integrated discipline

To seek common relationships among the various courses, teachers and schools, especially as these related to the basic themes

To develop ways of relating course content, materials and world developments to the central themes

To determine the relative emphasis of the themes in each social studies course in order to see the role of each course and of the total program in relationship to theme "coverage."

It was anticipated that course reorganization, textbook and curriculum materials review and selection would follow after the study revealed the emphases and any weaknesses of the existing program.

By questionnaire, teachers indicated the theme *emphasis* for each course they taught. These data were reconciled by all teachers of a particular course who met and by consensus agreed upon a "course emphasis." Next, groups representative of all courses met and agreed upon the common *expectations* that existed regarding the theme emphasis for each course. These two approaches to the theme study were charted for analysis and development.

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[12] National Council for the Social Studies. *Guide to Content in the Social Studies*. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1957.

Procedures for Restructuring the Content. The following summer the subject area coordinator again met with a workshop group. This meeting was considerably expanded, including teachers representing different courses and schools; a librarian also participated. At this time the implications of the analysis were reviewed to identify themes that were overemphasized, those that were omitted and the desirability of assigning or realigning certain theme emphases. Teachers working by course groups developed generalizations or concepts that restated the unit content of particular courses with the agreed upon emphasis. Thus the principal content of the course—the material to be learned—was rephrased and restructured in terms of basic concepts under which the usual dates, places and people could be assembled.

The 14 themes, then, became the basic structure to which each course statement related; each course by design had a somewhat different emphasis and responsibility. Content was reviewed in terms of its contribution to student understanding of these basic and recurring concepts in the social studies. New information and materials were considered in terms of their relevancy to these central bases and to pupil interest, as were evaluation procedures, class questions and project activities. In addition to rethinking the social studies program and the various segments of it, teachers learned to relate activities, experiences and new knowledge to a few central and basic themes that would persist despite changing world events, new materials or teachers. A base for reconsideration of the social studies program had been established.

New Roles and Tools for the Supervisor

Much has been written of the new role of the teacher as the coordinator of an expanding series of services and facilities used to enhance the learning of each pupil; as a specialist team member who participates in large and small group sessions and teams with others to share competencies and interests; as the producer and dispenser of multidimensional media that spread knowledge and analyze feedback; as the leader in a process of inquiry whereby pupils are encouraged to discover generalizations, to relate knowledge to broader concepts and to understand the various disciplines as they become producers of knowledge. These and many other realities suggest that the supervisors working with teachers in these activities also have new roles, new tools, new responsibilities.

Equally significant are the implications of studies of teaching styles, interaction and pupil response made by Marie Hughes, David G. Ryans, Ned Flanders, B. Othanel Smith, Philip W. Jackson and Jacob W. Getzels, Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel and others. While observational techniques have been known for many years, the analysis of teacher and pupil behaviors promises much for greater precision, and for more effective supervisory help. These highly refined but often specialized instruments are in preliminary and research stages. In the meantime, supervisors are taking steps to implement these research efforts and to improve their own effectiveness.

Analysis of the Use of Class Time. A science supervisor, concerned about the lack of effective evaluation of the new sections of textbooks by the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, the Chemical Education Materials Study and the Physical Science Study Committee, determined to collect evidence on at least one item—the ways in which time was used in science classes and the greater percent (if true) of time devoted to laboratory practices in those classes using the newer approaches to science instruction. A simple instrument was developed.

Each teacher, or a designated pupil, was to indicate on a time line for each day's class, which of several class activities predominated during each ten minute interval, *e.g.*, class discussion, teacher presentation or lecture, student presentation, experience with laboratory equipment, specimens or materials, films and slides, testing or review. This record was kept for six weeks by both junior and senior high school science teachers and then analyzed by teachers, by units and by courses.

The intent of the investigation was not to make judgments about the quality of the science program, but to observe how time was used; what normative bases might be established for the various courses and grade levels; as preliminary to more precise instruments being developed; and to develop more particular hypotheses.

Many statements were made based on the crude data thus assembled. For example:

> Approximately 50 percent more senior high school science class time was spent in discussions and lectures than in the junior high school classes.
>
> Junior high school science class time was often spent in the library; this was seldom the case in the senior high school classes.
>
> Junior high school science class time was often spent in student presentations to the class; this was seldom done in the senior high school classes.
>
> Electricity and electronics classes spent considerably more time using laboratory materials than did other science classes.
>
> Ninth grade biology classes tended to fall between the senior high

school pattern and the junior high school pattern; however, they more closely resembled the junior high school pattern.

Biological Sciences Curriculum Study biology classes reported over 50 percent more use of laboratory materials than did general biology classes.

Certain schools showed much greater use of audio-visual materials, certain teachers (and schools) reported much more group work, library use, field trips and student presentations. These factors related directly to facilities, the school and the principal's concerns. One important result was that in addition to gross normative information, teachers and principals saw that their styles, methods and emphases showed in the analysis; this was both an encouraging and a thought-provoking revelation.

Role of Pupils and Teacher in Class Management. A supervisor working with teachers of core curriculum classes developed a similar but more precise instrument. Thirty-two class activities were identified such as the following:

Decisions regarding choice of general topic or unit area
Decisions regarding organization of content
Decisions regarding scheduling and assignment of reports and activities
Presentation of skill work accompanying unit
Setting standards; establishing criteria for performance
Decisions regarding nature or structure of class organization
Concern for handling of class routines.

Student juries, after instruction, indicated on a five-point continuum, the degree to which these activities were student-managed or teacher-managed. Teachers also checked these items. Comparisons were made between teachers' checks and students' checks, between teachers of the same classes, between different grade levels.

Generally, there was greater agreement at the twelfth grade than at the ninth grade level, also more stability—or uniformity—at the higher grade levels. Teacher, class and grade level differences were quite marked. Subsequent review and discussion between the supervisor and the individual teachers provided excellent opportunities to discuss the why and how of certain activities, the rationale for pupil participation or exclusion from certain management functions and to share perceptions as to what constitutes good educational practice in all classes.

The Importance of Listening. Five supervisors were faced with new concerns about how to meet the needs of pupils in the so-called "grey areas" of a growing metropolitan district. They asked themselves what these concerns meant for their own responsibilities as curriculum leaders. This analysis of their roles caught them up in a whole network of professional operations quite far removed from their first perceptions of what they should be doing. The essence of their experiences was expressed by one supervisor who said, "We learned how to listen and how to help teachers to listen. This has made all of the difference in our work with disadvantaged children."

In their weekly staff meetings, the five supervisors had reviewed the reports from the Great Cities Project. They had examined the basic reading materials which had been prepared in Detroit. One supervisor had visited the Banneker District Project in St. Louis to observe at first hand what was under way there. In short, these supervisors made every effort to inform themselves fully about the most effective practices and about the research which was turning up new techniques and materials.

New Perceptions About Language. However, throughout this group effort, in which they shared freely their own new knowledge, the staff had a growing realization that more knowledge was a necessary condition yet not, in itself, sufficient for their needs. That is, they were pretty certain that to-whom-it-may-concern messages about working with socially disadvantaged children would not give sufficient help or support to the principals and certain interested teachers in the downtown schools. One thing seemed clear: the assumed language deprivation of pupils might be due to the fact that *teachers* had not learned to listen—to use and to build on the language the pupils *did* bring with them. What does a supervisor, or a principal, do to help a teacher learn how to listen to what pupils have to say?

One supervisor, sparked by an interest in the work of Marie Hughes in analyzing interaction which takes place in a classroom, probed further into the question of how to go about analyzing teaching operations. She discovered the filmstrips and the tapes prepared by Ned Flanders for his studies. In several sessions, the supervisors went through this material together. They then decided to make a recording of some of their own supervisory "talks" in a series of meetings being held to orient teachers to the new mathematics program.

The results of this trial run on themselves were quite similar to those which Flanders found in using his approach in elementary classrooms. Two of the building principals became interested, and the third principal joined them within a period of three weeks, both to use the materials the supervisors had explored and to analyze tapes of their own talk. In brief, the supervisors and principals were engaging in their own in-service development in order to know better how to be of help to interested teachers.

A New Resource for Supervisors. The teachers in the three buildings were intrigued by what their supervisors and principals had discovered about themselves. They came to see the interaction analysis approach as a useful resource available to them for examining more carefully the kinds of interaction which really took place in their own rooms.

They did not need to report their first attempts to their fellow teachers or to anyone. As the year progressed, teachers, though not all to the same degree or at the same rate, learned to listen to what the pupils had to say. Language skills developed in unpredictable ways as a result. All who were involved in the undertaking, which was indeed an exploration with new in-service content, were convinced that an important first step had been taken in designing a new program for disadvantaged children.

Similarly, a university, concerned about the lack of effectiveness teachers had in communicating with culturally deprived youth, employed a similar procedure. In discussing certain topics the teachers in training were paired off for "conversations." When a statement was made by one person it had to be restated in different words by the other before a response or answer could be given. Many times this was an extremely frustrating but illuminating experience. This was especially true as these teachers realized that, to communicate, the words must convey flavor and meaning; that culturally deprived pupils were likely to depend upon fewer words or single words; that a concern for listening, as well as for vocabulary, cadence and rhythm, is an important aspect of language that must be learned and taught.

New Media, A Wider Sphere. In systems with television another kind of role is now impinging upon the supervisor—planning and participating in broadcasted or taped in-service programs for staff and pupils. One group of supervisors met with the director of instructional TV and initiated several programs of this kind. These programs were planned with the appropriate supervisor or department chairman, who assumed responsibility for the content and presentation of each TV film. Involved were new skills, new challenges, new problems, new media, new audiences, with the aim, hopefully, of improving effectiveness; and with TV tape, there was the possibility of repeating those presentations deemed worthy. Programs produced are listed here to indicate the nature of the tasks and the variety of roles involved:

"Reading in the Content Fields," by the director of reading instruction and special reading teachers

"Introduction to Literature for Adolescents," by a language arts supervisor and a high school librarian

"Evaluation—Class, Content and Broad Considerations," by the director of research

"Implications Drawn from Standardized Testing," by a counselor and an administrative intern

"Characteristics of New Programs and Approaches in Science," by a science supervisor and high school science department chairmen

"Curriculum Development Procedures," by general coordinators

"Social Studies Skills—Sequences and Developments," by teachers and department chairmen.

Such presentations are very demanding and very time consuming. They require the projection of interest and competence in a relatively new arena and media. They call forth many skills, often undeveloped even by those in supervisory or quasi-supervisory roles. As the population continues to increase, it is likely that supervisors will be expected to work with larger and larger groups of teachers. Greater use of these mechanical and automated devices, new procedures and technical aids will be essential tools and responsibilities of the effective supervisor.

Video Tape and Teacher Growth. Another use for television that was reported dealt more directly with teacher performance and improvement. Several English teachers, with their supervisor, planned and taped certain class sessions. For these sessions a concept or skill was identified, *e.g.*, the short story, and presented to classes of varied ability. Two TV video tape cameras recorded the classes, using wide range lenses in order to record the reactions of a number of pupils. The constant element in one set of presentations was the content of the teacher presentation; in another set, the content was varied, attempting to adjust to the differing achievement and intellectual levels of the pupils. Thus, there were student variables (ability range) and content variables (for accelerated and for slow).

The taped lessons were viewed by counselors who commented upon pupil interest and behavior—on the basis of their experience with particular pupils, and on their interpretation of student responses as recorded on the tape. Supervisors aided in the development of criteria and observational procedures that facilitated a systematic viewing by teachers and others not directly involved in the video-taped classes. Together with teachers, they were building a library of student and teacher behaviors and reactions, an attitute of objectivity, a willingness to seek improvement and to accept the intrusiveness of the TV camera as an adjunct of in-service and professional growth.

School and College Cooperation in Curriculum Planning

Areas of Cooperative Planning. The need for new agencies to facilitate cooperative curriculum development has been documented time and again. ASCD's Cooperative Action Program for Curriculum Improvement and the NEA Project on Instruction's recommendation on this matter are but two examples. A number of universities are exerting leadership in developing services to the "problem" schools and programs for culturally deprived and disadvantaged youths. Working directly with school and community groups, the following steps are being taken:

Analyze the socioeconomic needs and environment of pupils
Develop special facilities and staff training opportunities
Promote joint university-school-community cooperation
Design more effective teaching and learning materials
Study motivational factors as they relate to pupils, and to teacher willingness to serve in these areas.

A unique aspect of a number of projects is the interdisciplinary approach taken by the university. Research teams, social scientists and psychologists unite with public school teachers and curriculum leaders. Queens College; Hunter College; Teachers College, Columbia University; and Wayne State University, among others, have programs under way. Because of its proximity to the Appalachian area, Miami University in Ohio has plans to establish a Center for Human Resources Development. Expert knowledge and experience have been made available by the Great Cities Improvement Project. An ASCD task force has produced recommendations regarding education for Disadvantaged Rural Youth, and for Disadvantaged Urban Youth. Federal legislation and support have become an important adjunct to these developments. It is clear that new ways must be found to bring together the resources of colleges and universities and the resources of public schools in their shared responsibility to define curriculum content. Individuals involved in curriculum leadership often cite this particular problem area among the several to which they would give top priority.

The Development of New Curriculum Content. An instance involving the functioning of one Social Studies Curriculum Center, supported by Project Social Studies of the Cooperative Research Branch, U.S. Office of Education, may serve as an example for other university-field relationships in various curricular areas. This particular center was approaching the second phase of its work on a three-year project—

namely, that of checking out with experienced teachers the proposed structure of one of the social studies fields, in this case, economics at the high school level.

Experienced classroom teachers had participated also in the first phase of the undertaking, which consisted of defining the structure of the field and the modes of inquiry that characterized the field. These teachers were now sought out to serve in yet another specialized way in which only they were in a position to function. In short, the high school social studies teachers, along with the university scholars in economics, were taking shared leadership, each making a vital contribution from his own unique perspective. One might view this work as engagement in a professional dialogue. Such a dialogue requires that the curriculum leader—in this case, high school teachers serving in this role—and the college professor will develop competencies which tend to differ markedly from those they traditionally have used.

A third phase of the total undertaking will consist of a field testing of the modified structure arrived at cooperatively. Here again, classroom teachers will play a critical role. An important point to be made about this approach is the central responsibility it places on classroom teachers. This approach is in sharp contrast to some which tend to assume that curriculum development consists of "packaging" teacher-proof curricular materials, field testing them and then disseminating the materials.

Central in the approach taken in this instance is a procedure similar to Hilda Taba's proposed inversion technique. That is, the test of the quality of the curriculum development comes from what is being done at the classroom level by teachers who are involved directly in the strategy to improve the program. This is quite different from the preparation of "teacher-proof" packages of content. In this enterprise it is essential and morale building to have university persons with successful public school experience and with personal insight as to the particular problems faced daily by the classroom teacher.

Such cooperative efforts are complex and time consuming. However, many persons who are participating see no viable shortcuts. One teacher summed up his feelings this way: "This is hard work, but I like it. For the first time, I am working as a professional who has a unique contribution to make."

In summary, man has invaded space; he has irrevocably linked the globe; he has developed the systematic pursuit of innovation. Having embarked upon such a course, man must also participate in a restructuring of the elements he has unleashed. In this enterprise, educators must assume a major role. This chapter has included a limited account of efforts being made to build a sense of common purpose and community, develop realistic programs of action that both incorporate and cope with the elements of change and contribute to a sense of continuity, however fragile. In this climate the role of the curriculum worker and the supervisor will continue to be strategic.

Chapter Six

Looking Ahead in a Climate of Change

Paul R. Klohr

IN 1965, looking ahead in a climate of change, curriculum leaders have available a great wealth of technical knowledge. Never before has such potential power been available. Yet, there is a pervasive tendency for many supervisors and curriculum workers to feel alienated from the educational scene. They frequently act in ways that almost deny their sense of being—personal and professional. Such denial renders individuals powerless and prevents them from tapping the many potentials for knowing and experiencing. In short, individuals in this condition are unable to actualize themselves as leaders.

Many factors help to foster this sense of alienation. Van Til's analysis in Chapter One of the forces causing change identifies a number of these factors. Thoughtful critics of ways in which curricular innovations have been made in recent years point out the anonymous role frequently assigned to the teacher. The so-called goal of "teacher proof" curricular materials is but one illustration. Often cast in a similar, professionally untenable role is the supervisor or the curriculum specialist.

Not the least of the contributing factors to such trends is, to be sure, the very complexity of the educational scene itself. This complexity has been well documented. For example, the explosion of knowledge in every field and the problems this presents will continue to add to the difficulty of the tasks in the years ahead. The necessity to recognize the structure of the disciplines themselves complicates the problem. The need to cope with the wide range of cognitive styles of learners cannot be ignored. The possibility that teachable groups might be planned with the teacher as a variable as well as the student suggests further unexplored dimensions. This list could be extended on and on. Nevertheless, important as it is to recognize the factors that contribute to a state of relative immobility, this knowledge is not sufficient to give leaders the means to cope more effectively with the problems they face. Nor is a return to gross oversimplification of complex problems a viable alternative.

Chapter Five contains selected instances in which curriculum leaders have coped effectively with some aspects of their complex tasks. However, too often, as one tries to see what he needs for moving ahead, he runs the risk of not backing off far enough. Supervisors, thinking of themselves as practitioners with jobs to do, have, in general, eschewed such backing off. Often they have seen such a retreat as armchair theorizing with little or no practical consequences.

The proposal underlying this chapter is that a deliberate backing off should be undertaken. Such a tactic might help assure that the look ahead will have sufficient perspective to give a sense of direction. Three areas within the broad theater of operations of the curriculum leader have been selected as a framework for this effort: the need to project a clear picture of specialized professional functions of curriculum leadership; the need to develop more adequate conceptual tools to carry out these unique functions; the need to cultivate openness to new experiences.

Clearly, these are not the only areas which can serve the purpose of giving necessary perspective. They are offered as one sample of an effort to identify needed tools in the years ahead. A further position is taken that individuals cannot, indeed, free themselves to lead until they can come to terms conceptually, or theoretically, with the "prior matters" posed by an analysis of these or some such similar problem areas.

A Clear Picture of Functions

Curriculum leaders need to project a clear picture of their specialized professional functions. Chester Babcock, Harold Shafer and Gordon Mackenzie, in earlier chapters of this yearbook, have emphasized the changing roles of the curriculum leader. The effort here is to focus again on this aspect of the climate of change as we look ahead. To achieve a sharp focus, we propose that the curriculum leader give continued attention to his *specialized* professional functions.

Such generalized goals as "improving the educational programs for boys and girls" or "creating a situation in which teachers and others concerned with good education can work together" are not adequate to meet this need. These are goals shared by many in school systems.

They are, indeed, desirable goals of education. Yet, one often hears the status leader in curriculum and supervision describe his functions at this level of generality. Moreover, it is not uncommon for job descriptions for school systems seeking new leadership to reflect somewhat the same generality in their descriptions of the duties of a curriculum coordinator or a director of instruction.

That there should be overlap among the functions carried out by various individuals exerting leadership in the school, no one would deny. Yet when administrative functions are not clearly differentiated from what might be called technical, or special, functions for which the curriculum leader has *unique* responsibilities, there is a danger of role diffusion. Such role diffusion, of course, limits the impact of an individual and his work. Some are inclined to explain away this serious limitation to the development of instructional leadership by identifying the conditions which make it difficult to clarify the role of the curriculum leader. For example, one tends to cite the fact that staff functions, in contrast to line functions, are hard to define.

Also, the problem of understaffing looms large in this context, since it forces the few specialists who are available in the system to assume an unwarrantedly wide range of diverse responsibilities. Under such circumstances, a curriculum leader might find, for example, that his major role has come to be defined largely as one of working with community groups on matters of school-community relations. This is a critical function to be fulfilled, and it relates to the instructional program. However, to permit this one function to become the overriding task performed by a supervisor or curriculum director is to deny several other technical tasks which might well deserve to have even higher priority.

Since supervisors often have not had specialized professional preparation, they have not commonly been in a position to make certain technical contributions even when there was freedom to do so. Undeniably, the preparation programs available to most curriculum workers—and, one might add, the minimum standards set by certification requirements—have also had a major share in contributing to the general situation of professional role diffusion.

Extensive efforts have been made in the past ten years to improve the advanced professional preparation of educational administrators, guidance counselors and others with leadership responsibilities in the schools. Significant new approaches involving internships, supervised practicums, interdisciplinary seminars, and simulated materials —to name a few—have developed in these fields. In sharp contrast, programs designed specifically to prepare curriculum leaders as specialists, programs using some of these new approaches, are few in number.

However, in spite of these limitations, some developments on the scene can help curriculum leaders to project a much clearer picture of their unique or specialized functions. In short, they can function as resources in helping individuals "take a stance" to move ahead on significant problems and issues. The taking of a stance is an important *first step* in identifying the tools needed in the years ahead.

Three developments are sketched here as instances of effective approaches in this projection of a clearer picture. It should be emphasized that these are instances only.

1. *An Identification of Technical Functions of the Supervisor.* Harold Shafer and Gordon Mackenzie have brought to their analysis both competence in the field of instructional leadership and concern about the nature and uses of power as it affects curriculum decision making. Some of their thinking about these matters is reflected in the work of the ASCD Commission on the Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers and is reported in Chapter Four. Yet, of added interest here, is Shafer and Mackenzie's attempt to identify the technical functions of an instructional specialist.

Within the technical area of curriculum and instruction for which the instructional specialist has primary responsibility in the leadership team, Mackenzie delineates six functions: facilitating teaching; bringing special resources to bear on teaching; planning and coordinating the overall curriculum; directing programs for special groups; coordinating research and experimentation; and organizing, coordinating and administering the staff of instructional specialists.[1] He then relates these functions to a conception of the process areas in which the instructional specialist has shared responsibility with others.

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[1] Gordon N. Mackenzie. "Assistant Superintendent—Instruction." *Preparation Programs for School Administrators: Common and Specialized Learnings.* Donald J. Leu and Herbert C. Rudman, editors. Seventh UCEA Career Development Seminar. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1963. p. 137-54.

Some individuals will want to modify Mackenzie's analysis as they use it to examine their own technical functions. Its value lies not in the realm of final definitions of roles but in its potential as a powerful tool to help the curriculum leader get a clearer picture of his unique functions and the resources he will need to fulfill these. Used this way, such a formulation serves one of the important purposes served by theory—namely, to raise significant questions which suggest hypotheses to be tested.

2. *A Description of the Curriculum Specialist as an Analyst.* In this instance, John Ramseyer[2] uses concentric cylinders in a model to describe the role of the curriculum specialist as an analyst in the total leadership complex. As he conceives the relationships, the innermost cylinder contains those personnel in "the line" with the board of education at the top and under it the superintendent, the principals, followed by the teachers. Individuals and groups in this cylinder are seen by Ramseyer as decision makers in their own right. Some make policy decisions; others, operational decisions.

Surrounding this inner core, or cylinder, is a second cylinder made up of a group of specialists who serve as analysts of what takes place both within the central core and in an outer, or third concentric cylinder which is the arena involving classroom interaction among teachers, students and community resources. It is in this cylinder that Ramseyer sees the supervisor or curriculum worker performing his specialized operations centered in analysis, diagnosis, and hypothesis formulation and testing. He describes the need for this centering in this way:

> There is need for constant analysis and diagnosis of possible problems being encountered in carrying on the instructional program. As difficulties arise, hypotheses for overcoming them develop from different sources—parents and lay groups, teachers, administrators, educational theorists. Some means must be found for giving priority to these hypotheses, developing a rationale which makes it possible to employ one or more of them, and developing a means of using the problem situations that arise in the school as beginning points for the provision of better learning experiences for children and youth.[3]

In addition to this range of operations, in which the specialist brings his special competence to bear in the making of decisions,

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[2] John A. Ramseyer. "Supervisory Personnel." *Preparation Programs for School Administrators: Common and Specialized Learnings.* Donald J. Leu and Herbert C. Rudman, editors. Seventh UCEA Career Development Seminar. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1963. p. 155-68.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 159.

Ramseyer also sees this specialist as one who can initiate action as well. In order to do this, he asserts, these specialists must have a line leader who can program curricular and instructional changes and who can coordinate the work of instructional specialists.

As in the case of Mackenzie's formulation, Ramseyer's model provides a useful way of thinking about instructional operations and assessing the kind of organizational framework which best fosters curriculum leadership.

3. *An Analysis of Leadership Competencies as a Base for Training and Professional Growth.* Martha King's work is yet another instance of an effort to arrive at a clearer definition of the specialized functions of instructional leadership. Her formulation underlies the design of a newly established program for the preparation of curriculum specialists at The Ohio State University. King expresses her view of leadership this way:

> . . . not as a static trait or quality, but as the demonstration of growth and power of an individual. It is the quality of behavior which results from the interaction of many forces within the individual, such as his experiences, knowledge and understandings, specific skills and attitudes. The manifested behavior is further stimulated or limited by the many forces of the environment or situation.[4]

In short, she takes a dynamic interpretation of leadership competencies and assumes that specific training programs, or in-service efforts, must reflect the individual's needs and the diversity of situations in which he performs his specialized operations. From this perspective, King outlines six growth areas: human development and learning, role of the school in society, scholarship in subject matter, process of curriculum change and supervision, organizational structure of the school, and educational research and methodology.

This kind of analysis has value not only for training programs, but also for the help it can give the curriculum leader in examining his own operations on the job. In this way, it serves, along with such analyses as those proposed by Mackenzie and Ramseyer, to help curriculum leaders project a clear picture of their unique professional functions. Thus, this analysis serves as a starting point in the identification of the tools needed to look ahead.

In using the analyses of Mackenzie, Ramseyer and King—or the work of others—to get a clearer picture of his specialized functions, the curriculum leader may find helpful the twofold distinction made by

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[4] Martha L. King. "Knowledge and Competence for the Instructional Leader." *Educational Leadership* 21: 450; April 1963.

Harris[5] in his study of supervisory behavior. He calls those supervisory activities intended to maintain and support the present level of instruction *tractive.* Those activities designed to change the program, he calls *dynamic.* Harris makes clear that an instructional leader has to engage in both kinds of activities. However, the critical point is that the leader should not confuse the two, that he should become increasingly aware of which domain he is in when he performs specific tasks. Moreover, Harris cites the need for adequate "protection" for the instructional leader working as a change agent in the dynamic arena.[6] Such protection cannot be provided unless there is a clear perception of the specialized roles to be fulfilled.

Need for More Adequate Conceptual Tools

Curriculum leaders need to develop more adequate conceptual tools to carry out their specialized professional functions. Analyses of the functions of the curriculum leader make quite central his role as an inducer and coordinator of change. The designation "change agent," perhaps more than any other, reflects this key responsibility. If the supervisor and the curriculum worker are, indeed, change agents, then it becomes a matter of great importance that they be able to help chart the direction of change and to keep track of it.

Certain conceptual tools are required in this process. Knowing how to work effectively with individuals and groups to achieve common goals is a necessary, but not sufficient, base for leadership operations.

Goodlad suggests the need for a conceptual system which he defines as something "both more than a theory and less than a theory. It is more than a theory in that it identifies the need for, and relevance of, theory. It is less than a theory in that it only suggests the relevance of specific data."[7] He then identifies the functions which such a conceptual system might perform. In other words, Goodlad is urging that theory, or a conceptual framework very close to theory, be given a chance to function in curriculum development processes. This use of what might be called a conceptual tool gives the curriculum leader a way of keeping track of what he is doing as he fosters change.

Maccia makes provision for this kind of activity in her analysis of three kinds of theory. In addition to descriptive theory which deals with actual events, and prescriptive theory which deals with events that ought to be, she posits a third realm. This she calls "design theory" to deal with actual events with respect to assumed events that ought to be.[8] Like the Goodlad formulation, this is an especially helpful view for the curriculum leader who, in one sense, is always working in an applied field.

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[5] Ben M. Harris. *Supervisory Behavior in Education.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. p. 18-19.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 63.

[7] John Goodlad. "The School Scene in Review." *The School Review.* December 1958. p. 391.

Yet, curriculum workers tend to resist the theoretical. Benne and his associates, looking at the whole matter of planning change, point up the situation in this way:

> Change-agents, accustomed to dealing with "facts," often find hard sledding in dealing with "theory." But, we reiterate, facts are always, in truth, observations made within some conceptual framework. Concepts are invented in order to fix a particular slant on reality and to guide in the production of new facts. The preoccupation of behavioral scientists with new concepts unintelligible to present common sense is based on this supposition. . . . Change-agents themselves make use of concepts and conceptual schemas, even while they are most vociferously attacking unfamiliar concepts in the name of naive realism or common sense. Common sense is itself a loose collection of conceptual schemas, and is the end product of cultural accretions, of folk wisdom, habitual modes of thought and hidden assumptions about human nature, and the social arrangements of man. An explicit formulation of concepts into a conceptual schema to be used by the change-agent allows him to reveal, examine, and refine his "common sense" diagnostic orientations.[9]

Many approaches might be taken by an individual in his efforts to develop an adequate conceptual framework and thereby overcome this resistance to theorize about what he is doing. Three merit attention with respect to their potential for developing some of the conceptual tools needed in curriculum development operations: the building of curriculum theory models; the making of a propositional inventory; the creation of a typology for viewing innovations. These approaches are not mutually exclusive of one another. In fact, an individual might choose to pursue one and find himself broadening his concern to include the other two.

1. *Curriculum Theory Model Building.* Although there is heightened interest in model building in curriculum, it is not a new activity. Virgil Herrick, at the 1947 Curriculum Theory Conference at the Uni-

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[8] Elizabeth S. Maccia. "The Nature of Theory." Working Paper, Educational Theory Center, The Ohio State University; April 1964. p. 3.

[9] Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne and Robert Chin. *The Planning of Change.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc. 1961. p. 194. Copyright © 1961. Used by permission.

versity of Chicago, presented a paper which focused on the problem of curriculum design. He defined the problem of curriculum design as that of "a statement of the pattern of relationships which exist among the elements of curriculum as they are used to make one consistent set of decisions about the nature of the curriculum of the child." [10]

He then reviewed several common designs, including the widely used curriculum design for the Eight-Year Study. Herrick proposed his own model for a curriculum design,[11] which included five boxes—a central one in which he defined curriculum, surrounded by four others. One contained statements of beliefs about the development of children, the nature of learning, the nature of democracy and the role of the school. A second included statements about the nature of organization and resources. A third delineated four centers for selecting and organizing learning experiences. The fourth identified the purposes to be achieved by the program.

As in any model, the lines and arrows showing assumed relationships among these boxes are of major importance. The concluding paragraph from Herrick's paper emphasizes the practical value of his model:

> The teacher and staff having a curriculum design in mind will have a more adequate orientation to the problems of curriculum development, a greater sensitivity to the various possible approaches to their solution, and will be more likely to see how each part of an educational program is related to every other part. This kind of understanding is the best possible assurance for wise and continued development of educational programs for children and youth.[12]

More recently, Hilda Taba [13] modified the Herrick model to take into account her view of what is involved in curriculum development.

Broudy, Smith and Burnett provide yet another instance in their study of curriculum theory. They propose a design [14] for a general education curriculum which draws on demands of the culture, uses of knowledge and research in curriculum and learning. The intent of their model is to show how cognitive and evaluative maps might be made out of symbolic skills, basic concepts, developmental studies, value exemplars and social problems.

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[10] Virgil Herrick. Chapter IV, "The Concept of Curriculum Design." In *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory.* Tyler and Herrick, editors. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. p. 37.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 43.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 50.

[13] Hilda Taba. *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962. p. 438.

[14] Harry S. Broudy, B. Othanel Smith and Joe R. Burnett. *Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1964. p. 160.

Such theory-building kinds of activities in the field of curriculum have their counterpart in the behavioral sciences. Two well-known examples from many such efforts are the model for "action" which came from the work of Parsons and Shils, and the Getzels [15] model which suggests two dimensions of behavior in a social setting. The staff of the Educational Theory Center at The Ohio State University continues to examine the usefulness for the study of education of models developed in other fields.[16]

A curriculum worker faced with the problem of developing a curriculum model or some similar conceptual tool for thinking about curriculum and instruction will find the work of Charles J. Brauner helpful. In recent years, other philosophers of education have aided the work of theory building by defining and explicating the language being used.

Brauner employs what he calls "conceptual research" in his analysis of the educational theory scene. He asserts that "conceptual research is the missing link between a logical-speculative tradition prematurely abandoned and a body of immediately useful facts without theoretical portent." [17] Taking this approach, he traces through and analyzes a number of movements in American education, all of which have had influence on programs of instruction.

Of special value is his classification of instructional space which might be used to judge teaching and curriculum. His scheme [18] suggests three dimensions which can be represented by three intersecting lines. One line suggests a constraint-elbow room dimension. The second describes a didacticism-ostension dimension. The third dimension involves spontaneity-sequence.

Such a classification serves the curriculum worker in much the same way that the classification Ned Flanders uses in his interaction analysis approach can be used; or, the categories Marie Hughes developed to analyze classroom interaction.[19] The "pedagogical moves" identified by Arno Bellack[20] in his analysis of the meanings of language communicated in high school teaching can serve a similar function. In each instance, the attempt is to develop a way of looking which will permit the user to become increasingly exacting in his description of what is and to permit him to make increasingly disciplined proposals in the prescriptive realms.

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[15] See: Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, editors. *Toward a General Theory of Action.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1951. Also see: Jacob W. Getzels and Herbert A. Thelen. "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System." *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups.* Part II, Fifty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

[16] Elizabeth S. Maccia *et al. Construction of Educational Theory Models.* Cooperative Research Project No. 1632. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1963.

[17] Charles J. Brauner. *American Educational Theory.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. p. 4.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 314.

Perhaps two additional examples of individuals engaged in theorizing in the field of curriculum in ways that help the curriculum leader develop more adequate conceptual tools are warranted here.

James B. Macdonald[21] has formulated a prospectus on what is needed in the way of a conceptual system, or a theory, of curriculum. He uses a general systems approach with input, output, content-process components and other general systems properties.

Macdonald's prospectus permits one to raise many significant questions about the nature of curriculum development operations and to pose hypotheses for further testing. This use supports two of his conclusions—namely, that (a) curriculum theory is a major resource for developing knowledge about curriculum, and (b) one of the important tasks is the identification of areas which can guide our conceptualization of curriculum.[22]

A second example is the effort of Elizabeth S. Maccia to define a discipline-centered approach to curriculum.[23] She builds on the view that each discipline has its own set of rules which govern inquiry and problem solving within that domain. However, she also asserts that there are rules which govern all aspects of human living and that a total curriculum might desirably give attention to these domains.

2. *The Propositional Inventory.* Another item of value in a set of conceptual tools which a curriculum worker needs to develop for himself is a propositional inventory. Such inventories are being made by social scientists in a number of fields.

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[19] For a summary of some implications of these studies, see: Paul R. Klohr. "Studies of the Teaching Act: What Progress?" *Educational Leadership* 20: 93-96; November 1962.

[20] Arno A. Bellack. "The Language of the Classroom: Meanings Communicated in High School Teaching." Paper presented at Eastern ASCD Research Institute; March 1-3, 1964.

[21] James B. Macdonald. "Curriculum Theory: Problems and a Prospectus." Paper given at Professors of Curriculum Meeting, Miami Beach, Florida, April 3, 1964. (Mimeographed, 17 p.)

[22] *Ibid.*, p. 17.

[23] Elizabeth S. Maccia. *The Nature of a Discipline-Centered Curricular Approach.* Social Studies Curriculum Center, Occasional Paper, 64-166. Columbus: The Ohio State University.

At one level, this effort might result in a set of generalizations similar to those organized by Berelson and Steiner[24] in their survey of what is known about human behavior.

Yet another illustration of this kind of approach is that made by Rogers[25] in his study of the diffusion of innovations. He reviewed over 500 publications from many fields on the diffusion of innovations and then synthesized the findings and theories. In this process, he developed a theoretical framework to complement and order the findings. Finally, he presented 52 generalizations which he asserted provide "a skeleton summary of the major conclusions of what is now known about the diffusion of innovations."

Perhaps an even more helpful example for the curriculum leader is a report of the work undertaken by the Institute for Research in Social Science at the University of North Carolina. This report deals with the nature of sociocultural change. In describing how the inventory was made, Kushner reports:

> What we sought were verifiable hypotheses concerning sociocultural change, culled from works both ethnographic and theoretical. . . . These we tried to group in still more inclusive propositions. Working mainly inductively, we grouped similar propositions together and arranged them according to the process or variable of change with which they dealt. The result was thirteen major categories, each made up of a series of propositions illustrated by hypotheses and each dealing with a single aspect of a complex change situation.[26]

Few individuals responsible for curriculum change will have the resources to undertake the collaborative efforts of the North Carolina research agency. The demonstrated need for such work again supports the thesis of William Alexander and the NEA's Project on Instruction that effective curriculum development will require the creation of some new agencies on a regional basis, agencies which will have this kind of activity as one of their functions. Yet, until such new agencies are established, each individual can, with the help of related efforts now under way, develop his own propositional inventory. Indeed, the position taken here is that such an undertaking results in the creation of one of the essential conceptual tools which the curriculum leader must have as he redefines his role in a climate of change.

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[24] Bernard Berelson and Gary A. Steiner. *Human Behavior: An Inventory of Scientific Findings*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. 1964.

[25] Everett M. Rogers. *Diffusion of Innovations*. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc. 1962.

[26] Gilbert Kushner and others. *What Accounts for Sociocultural Change?* Chapel Hill: Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina, 1962. p. 1. Reprinted by permission.

How would a 1965 propositional inventory in the field of curriculum look? Each individual would have his own grouping for inclusive propositions. These propositions would, in turn, have different hypotheses. There is, of course, no set format. However, in 1963, and again in 1964, this writer, in collaboration with Victor Lawhead, analyzed approximately 150 current publications judged to be most relevant to the field of curriculum.[27]

This work was, in effect, a rough beginning effort to develop a propositional inventory. Although it was clearly limited in scope, the resulting inventory has proved to be a useful tool for thinking about the field.

The 1963 inventory was organized into three major headings as follows: implications for viewing curriculum sources, implications for viewing centers for organizing the curriculum, and implications for viewing curriculum processes. To show how the inventory changed in 1964 and to project possible directions for change in 1965, the original 1963 subheadings are listed here without supporting documentation. Following each are sketched some of the instances which were then modified in the light of the 1964 analysis. The instances that tend to support the 1964 propositions are then identified. A 1965 projection would proceed in the same general way.

1963 Inventory

I. Implications for viewing curriculum sources

1. A broadening of the sources—emphasis on disciplines as a source; traditional sources generating new data—cross cultural studies, creativity research and cognitive studies, political processes; more explicit attention to "successful practice."

2. Less attention to systematic philosophy—national goals functioning as objectives; national projects with no expressed philosophical orientation.

3. Little attention to overall design—frequency of piecemeal research; professional organizations providing few comprehensive proposals.

II. Implications for viewing centers for organizing the curriculum

1. Few clearly drawn distinctions between general and specialized education—new formulations replacing these concepts; integration is claimed by each separate discipline; emphasis tends to be on early specialization.

2. New conceptual schemes—Taba's two-dimensional scheme; Miel's discipline-centered and problem-centered proposal; Thelen's design.

III. Implications for viewing curriculum processes

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[27] Reports of this work and the resulting bibliographies were made in 1963 and 1964 at the Professors of Curriculum meetings held at the time of the annual ASCD conferences.

1. Recognition of need for new strategies—ASCD resolution; relation between supervisors and teachers receiving new training; Taba's "inversion" proposal; recognition of power structure.

2. Need for study of diffusion of innovations—national agencies and new regional agencies; models from other fields; direct study of the dynamics of curriculum change

3. Diversity of views on nature of teaching-learning processes—emphasis on study of teaching operations; inquiry training.

In contrast to this threefold classification in 1963, the 1964 inventory suggested five categories:

1. Curriculum theorizing receives increased attention.
2. Studies focused on the structure of knowledge continue in many fields with curriculum materials developed accordingly.
3. Cognitive studies are providing an additional source for curriculum planning.
4. The analysis of teachers' behavior provides new perspective for curriculum.
5. Studies of innovations are providing new insights into the dynamics of curriculum change.

As in the 1963 inventory, each of these propositions was supported with a number of specific instances drawn from a review and synthesis of 1963-64 research and theory reports. Clearly, no claim can be made that this beginning effort identified *the* most significant propositions in the field of curriculum development. However, as asserted earlier, it did give those involved a useful conceptual tool. In a more general way, the reviews of the curriculum field undertaken every three years by the AERA *Review of Educational Research* have served a similar purpose for curriculum workers. The propositional inventory approach outlined here suggests that each individual should become involved in making his own review.

3. *A Typology for Viewing Change.* Along with a curriculum theory model and a propositional inventory, the curriculum leader can make good use of a third, closely related kind of conceptual tool called a typology for viewing change.

Klohr and Frymier[28] call attention to the need for comprehensive efforts to study the dynamics of curriculum change, itself. Their review of curriculum development literature for the period 1960-63 revealed the fact that few studies in the field of education centered directly on this problem. Moreover, many of the reports dealing with curricular innovations during the period proved to be reports of demonstrations rather than carefully planned experiments with an appropriate theoretical base and adequate evaluation.

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[28] Paul R. Klohr and Jack R. Frymier. "Curriculum Development: Dynamics of Change." *Review of Educational Research* 33: 304-21; June 1963.

The typology of change strategies developed by Matthew B. Miles serves as an excellent example of a tool designed to assess change.

A Typology of Change Strategies [29]

Initiator of Strategy		Stages in the Strategy Prior to Adoption by Target System			
		Design of innovation	Local awareness-interest	Local evaluation	Local trial
Target system (school, college, etc.)	Existing structure	1	2	3	4
	New structure	5	6	7	8
Systems in environment of target system	Existing structure	9	10	11	12
	New structure	13	14	15	16

Using this typology, Miles [30] describes a "comprehensive strategy" for educational change as one which involves all four cells across a given row (for example, 5-6-7-8 or 13-14-15-16). He calls strategies which are less comprehensive, in that they fall in less than four cells, "partial" or "truncated" strategies. This scheme permits one to examine proposals which are made for changing instructional programs and to assess their comprehensiveness. It is especially useful in the task of projecting what resources will be needed to make an innovation fully effective and what mechanisms or agencies might need to be created to provide the desired diffusion of the innovation.

As with the building of a curriculum model and the making of a propositional inventory, one's typology for viewing innovations need not be like the one Miles designed. In fact, his typology, which is meant for an analysis of educational innovations in general, might very well need extra cells in the matrix to adapt it more fully to the analysis of curriculum change. The point made here is that each leader needs to have a systematic way to view innovations and the strategies involved in their diffusion. Such a systematic view is a basic conceptual tool with which he works.

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[29] "Educational Innovation: The Nature of the Problem." *Innovation in Education.* Matthew B. Miles, editor. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964. p. 21.

[30] *Ibid.*, p. 20-29.

Openness to New Experience

Curriculum leaders need to cultivate openness to new experience in themselves and others. Thus far in the look ahead, the areas explored clearly indicate the need a curriculum leader has to develop an adequate conceptual base for his operations. For most individuals, such a base involves new ways of thinking about their field of specialization. Related to these efforts, yet different enough to warrant added attention, is the need instructional leaders have to cultivate other ways of knowing.

Without resorting to the mystical—for there is an increasing body of sound research and theory in this realm—this dimension seems to be best described by the expression "cultivating openness to new experience." Macdonald, in discussing the conditions for growth, identifies openness as one of the maximal conditions:

> To be open to life is the maximal condition for developing human potential. To be open in thought—fluent, flexible and original; and open in affect—experiencing the potential feelings in an activity; and open in perception—meeting the potential stimuli in the world: these are the ways to maximum development of human potential.[31]

Openness to new experience is one dimension of human behavior which has persisted in Ross L. Mooney's [32] long-term study of the nature of creativity. He speaks of it this way:

> The creative person seeks to extend his experiencing through holding himself open for increasing inclusions. This is evidenced by an inclination to take life as an adventure and a becoming, a curiosity and willingness to understand what is going on in oneself and in related aspects of the environment, a desire to get out to the edges of conscious realization and to

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[31] James B. Macdonald. "An Image of Man: The Learner Himself." *Individualizing Instruction.* ASCD 1964 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964. p. 34.

[32] Ross L. Mooney. "Creation and Teaching." *Bulletin of Bureau of School Service.* Lexington: College of Education, University of Kentucky. Vol. 35; 1963. p. 46.

feel a way into the unknown, an interest in new ideas and fresh perspectives, a spirit of play and experimentation.

All who have been concerned with the problem of how to achieve this quality of human experience, whether in learners or in individuals with professional leadership responsibilities, have been fully aware of the risks involved in the attempt. Macdonald, for example, asserts: "To be open to life is a risky business demanding a 'courage to be' and a sound ego integration." [33]

In describing the situation faced by guidance counselors, C. Gilbert Wrenn [34] recognizes a cultural encapsulation which serves as a cocoon. This cocoon made up of pretended reality—the world as it has been known in the past rather than as it *is*—protects the counselor from confronting change. Wrenn then asserts that the walls of the cocoon must be permeable so that pressure does not build up between the reality within the cocoon and the reality without.

Like the counselor, the curriculum leader often finds himself encapsulated in a cocoon. Yet, his major specialized role is that of a change agent for the school. The critical task, then, is to cultivate an openness or, to carry out the analogy, to make openings in the wall of the cocoon. The concentric cylinders Ramseyer proposed as a model to describe the function of the curriculum specialist as an analyst had many openings between the cylinders.

Wrenn suggests an approach which has possibilities for cultivating openness. He proposes that individuals should teach themselves to unlearn something each day. Thus he urges:

> Each day we should take some fact which is no longer a fact and persuade ourselves that this should be dropped from our vocabulary and from our cumulative store of presumed knowledge. Each day we should examine some situation which seems very familiar to us but which no longer may be present in our society. Each day we should question some social relationship which was not present when we were a child but is very present now—such things as the new African nations, the Communist nation less than an hour away from us, the fact that our childhood family and its pattern no longer exist. Each day we should question something that we believe but that other people of integrity may reject.[35]

This kind of unlearning demands a professional discipline similar to that required by the Frazier criteria to be used in a search for better answers:

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[33] Macdonald, *op. cit.*, p. 34.

[34] C. Gilbert Wrenn. "The Culturally Encapsulated Counselor." *Harvard Educational Review*. Fall 1962. p. 445.

[35] *Ibid.*, p. 448.

> Does the proposal promise a real enlargement of our thinking beyond our present vision or possibilities? . . . Does the proposed study give actual promise to involve us deeply in achieving new insights, values, understandings and skills? . . . Will the proposed study be difficult to do? [36]

Again, Frazier underscores the difficulty of this way of working but also suggests some of its excitement:

> . . . the process of gaining significant new knowledge (not information only) is always slow; always uncertain and risky; always arduous; always, of course, exciting—and always, finally, inadequate. The search is never over.[37]

The kind of leadership implied by Macdonald and Frazier calls for a deep commitment, with the inevitable risk which goes with it. It also emphasizes the need for a view of leadership which places high priority on value questions and valuing.

Giving increased attention to value questions suggests a different kind of content for the preparation of leaders in education. A deliberate selection of value laden experiences must become a part of such preparation and certainly must characterize the professional development efforts the individual plans for his own growth. Jack Culbertson, Executive Director of the University Council for Educational Administration, describes the need this way:

> Inquiry will also need to be bolstered by new advances in the breadth and depth of content in curricula if appropriate insights about educational purposes are to be fostered. In addition to providing content from the humanities about man's enduring values, graduate curricula need to illuminate those aspects of society which have implications for updating the meaning of educational excellence and equality of opportunity.[38]

He then outlines some concepts from the social sciences which emphasize economic, political and sociological trends as illustrative material.

Throughout the studies of what is involved in developing openness to new experience runs a persistent theme—namely, the need to cultivate oneself as an instrument of inquiry. This point was developed in detail in Mooney's chapter on "The Researcher Himself" in the ASCD 1957 Yearbook.[39] Recently, he has stated the point this way:

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[36] Alexander Frazier. "Our Search for Better Answers." *Educational Leadership* 20: 458; April 1963.

[37] *Ibid.*, p. 458.

[38] Jack Culbertson. "The Preparation of Administrators." *Behavioral Science and Educational Administration.* Part II, 63rd Yearbook, National Society for Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. p. 321.

[39] Ross L. Mooney. "The Researcher Himself." *Research for Curriculum Improvement.* ASCD 1957 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1957. p. 154-86.

> People who undertake a lifetime of creative production are required to become conscious of themselves as the source of their creation; only from themselves can the next novel, the next symphony, the next mathematical formulation, or the next scientific hypothesis emerge. These people have to know themselves as instruments of creation, to learn to care for those instruments, to develop and discipline themselves accordingly.[40]

In taking what he calls "the personal approach" to teaching, Arthur W. Combs describes the good teacher as one who has learned to use himself as an effective instrument.[41] Moreover, Combs' analysis permits one not only to confront in a fresh way the question of what is involved in cultivating openness to new experience, but also, it encourages the generating of hypotheses to be tested. He details 40 such hypotheses.

So far, this area of need has been discussed as if it involved only one individual. The "and others" in the initial statement is, however, a significant dimension. The professional literature of supervision and curriculum development has emphasized so strongly the need for competence in interpersonal relations that little more than an underscoring of its continued importance seems necessary here.

Perhaps one instance is warranted to call attention to the many new developments in this field which impinge so directly on the leadership roles of the curriculum worker. Berlin and Wyckoff [42] have developed a teaching program which can be taken by two people in interaction with each other.

This program, which is being tested in a number of field situations, consists of a series of ten sessions. The two individuals working with the material must confront it together. Four general aims underlie the approach: "To deepen one's ability to be more aware of his own feelings and the feelings of others; to enhance one's appreciation of his own potential; to increase flexibility in both the emotional and cognitive aspects of behavior; and to develop the ability to apply these new behavior patterns to the life situation." [43]

Other equally promising efforts to develop new content in the field of interpersonal relations are under way. The point to be made here is that the curriculum leader must know these resources and know how to use them effectively for his own professional growth and to further the in-service development of others.

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[40] Mooney, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

[41] Arthur W. Combs. "The Personal Approach to Good Teaching." *Educational Leadership* 21: 369-77, 399; March 1964.

[42] Human Development Institute, 1299 W. Peachtree, N. W., Atlanta 9, Georgia.

[43] Jerome I. Berlin and L. Benjamin Wyckoff. Symposium notes, American Psychological Association Convention, 1963.

In summary, this look ahead was taken without benefit of a crystal ball and, hopefully, without resorting to a kind of mystique which often clouds the vision of things to come. It has been largely a survey of instances which illustrate individuals at work. Other equally promising instances could have been selected from an analysis of the total scene limned against the backdrop of the preceding five chapters.

The key question is whether or not these instances do, indeed, help to identify the several large areas of need which curriculum workers and supervisors must face as they continue to lead in a climate of change. Also crucial is the degree to which these instances suggest ways of coping with the needs thus identified.

The three basic needs in this context are:

1. The need to project a clear picture of specialized professional functions
2. The need to develop more adequate conceptual tools to carry out unique professional functions
3. The need to cultivate openness to new experience.

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